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ABSTRACT

The Pilot Project on School Library Development has designed two course to train primary and secondary teachers and teacher librarians in the South Pacific Region. Oriented to the needs of the teacher as a library user, the first course seeks to stimulate teachers to encourage students to use library resources for seeking information and for pleasure reading. Seven topics are covered: (1) information, sources and resources; (2) evaluation of information resources and integration in curriculum planning; (3) school library services for teachers; (4) locating information in print and nonprint resources; (5) preparation and use of audiovisual resources; (6) promoting student resource awareness and usage; and (7) stimulating student interest in reading. The second course is designed to provide basic training for student teachers who intend to work as primary or secondary school librarians. The course is divided into six sections: The Role of Information Resources in Teaching and Learning; Information Resources and Services; The School Library, An Overview; Selection and Evaluation of Information Resources for Schools; Using Information Resources; and The School Library--Organization and Management. Self-testing exercises are included for the second course. (THC)

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Paris, 1984

South Pacific region pilot project on school library development: training programmes for teachers

Course for all teachers on the use
of information resources
and libraries by teachers

Course for teacher trainees who wish
to take school librarianship as a major
in their Teacher Training Course

prepared by Margaret Trask
and a group of experts

General Information Programme and UNISIST

United Nations Educational,
Scientific and Cultural Organization

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I. Margaret Trask

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and Unisist

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SOUTH PACIFIC REGION

PILOT PROJECT ON SCHOOL LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

TRAINING PROGRAMMES

INTRODUCTION

These two courses have been specifically compiled for use in training programmes for teachers and teacher librarians in the South Pacific Region as part of the Pilot Project on School Library Development funded under the General Information Programme and UNISIST of UNESCO, but are of general applicability. References are made to specific regional educational aims as well as regional publications. These could be varied for different countries.

Course No. 1 is for all teachers on the use of information resources and libraries by teachers. It is oriented to the needs of the teacher as a library user and seeks to stimulate teachers to encourage students to use resources and libraries for reading for pleasure, as well as for seeking information, so that reading development is sustained and literacy levels extended, sound attitudes to reading are formed and the habit of reading is established.

Course No. 2 is for teacher trainees who wish to take school librarianship as a major in their teacher training course. It is oriented to the basic training of a teacher librarian for both primary and secondary schools. It is expected that on compilation of their teacher training course students who have completed such a major would work as a school librarian responsible for the development of library service in the school. The course includes test yourself exercises for teacher trainees. The same course could be used for trained teachers who are responsible for the school library but who lack training in school librarianship. It would probably be necessary to design a different set of test yourself exercises, which would take into account the maturity and experience of trained teachers.

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SOUTH PACIFIC REGION

PILOT PROJECT ON SCHOOL LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

- Course for all teachers on the use of information resources and libraries by teachers

SHORT COURSE FOR ALL TEACHERS ON THE USE OF INFORMATION RESOURCES AND LIBRARIES BY TEACHERS

Introduction

As the effective use of information resources, reading materials and libraries is clearly essential in teaching and learning, this course unit has been developed as a component of teacher education required in all pre-service teacher education courses.

For those already trained, completion of this short course as an in-service activity would be a valuable element of professional development for teachers.

(i) Entry Requirement: Students must normally be teachers-in-training or qualified teachers.

(ii) Purpose of the Course:

- This Course is oriented to the needs of the teacher as a library user.
- Those wishing to learn how to organise a school library and provide library service would need to undertake, after this unit, a specialist course in school librarianship.
- The seven sections of the course unit outlined in this proposal have been designed for both primary and secondary teachers of the South Pacific Region.
  However it is recognised that the course structure presented may require different emphasis and time allocations for primary teachers (and trainees) and secondary teachers (including students training to be secondary teachers).
- Again, the educational level of students of this course, extent of their teaching experience, present stage of resource provision and school library development in a country, and the availability of audiovisual equipment will be additional factors which may influence the length of the course and the content included. Thus, flexibility in the course content will probably be needed.
- The course seeks to stimulate teachers to encourage students to use resources and libraries for reading for pleasure, as well as for seeking information, so that reading development is sustained and literacy levels extended, sound attitudes to reading are formed and the habit of reading is firmly established. The use of the library and a library period in the school timetable as a formal teaching of a new subject "Library" is to be avoided: instead, teachers would seek in such periods to maximise students' purposeful use of resources. The term school library as used in this course covers not only the fully developed school library service from a designated room, but also resource materials collections organised from a central "school resource store" or a central resource materials collection for the school located in one classroom or classroom collections co-ordinated at school level.

While reference is made to audiovisual materials (and audiovisual equipment) countries may wish initially to emphasise the non-electronic audiovisual materials, especially for rural schools. Here, the value of photographs, study prints, picture files, professionally-produced charts, posters and similar materials could be particularly valuable.

(iii) Time Required

While the in-depth treatment and consolidation of all sections of the course would require 50 hours, a somewhat shorter period of time could be allocated in particular situations, for example, where course participants had already had experience of good libraries as students in primary and secondary schools. Again, the allocation of hours may be influenced by the stage of development of school libraries in a particular country, and the educational entry level of course participants.

(iv) Utilisation of this Course

The programme outlined may be organised as a two hour class weekly over one academic year or as four-hour workshops during half an academic year in pre-service teacher education; as three successive one-week concentrated full-time in-service courses during term or in vacation time for serving teachers; as packaged programmes delivered for distance learning; or be integrated with subject-type or grade-level teacher in-service courses.

1. Aims of the Course

(i) This short course aims to increase student teachers' and teachers awareness of and ability to use information, sources and resources - including libraries themselves, for their teaching and with their students.

(ii) A second goal is to train teachers to assist children develop information-seeking and library-use skills, in co-operation with the teacher-in-charge of the library.

2. Objectives

On completion of this course, the student will be able to:

2.1 Show an increased awareness of "information", "resource materials" and "libraries".

2.2 Describe the functions of these elements in teaching and in learning and include resources in teaching programmes and lesson plans.

2.3 Locate the sources, find the resource materials and secure the information required for personal needs, professional development and class-work.

2.4 Evaluate and select and use appropriate resource materials (and equipment where needed) for class teaching and the needs of individual students.

2.5 Assist students to use resources and libraries - including community information sources - efficiently.

2.6 Assist students to read for pleasure and develop the habit of reading as a continuing activity.

2.7 Design and then make his/her own materials when what is wanted is not available.

2.8 Organise and promote the use of reading resources and information materials in the classroom, for example in a "classroom resource corner".

2.9 Support the teacher-in-charge of the school library in the development of the library collection and in providing resources for classes taught and for individual students.

A Note on the Objectives

Where a teacher is asked by the Headmaster to organise and operate a school resource store or a school library, the teacher should consider the need to undertake a course for Teacher-Librarians available locally or in the region.

Course Content - Summary

Section 1	The Teacher Needs Information and Resources	Objective 1
Section 2	The Teacher Uses Resources in Teaching and Learning	Objective 2, 8
Section 3	The Teacher Uses Libraries Effectively	Objective 3, 9
Section 4	The Teacher Locates Information	Objective 3, 4
Section 5	The Teacher Produces Information Resources	Objective 7
Section 6	The Teacher Assists Students to Use Information Resources	Objective 5
Section 7	The Teacher Encourages Reading for Pleasure	Objective 6

Course Content - Detail

Section 1: The Teacher Needs Information and Resources

1.1 Information, sources and resources

1.2 Types of information resources

1.3 Systematic information-seeking

Section 2: The Teacher Uses Resources in Teaching and Learning

2.1 Function and utilisation of resources in teaching and student learning

2.2 Evaluation and selection of specific information resources

2.3 Integration of resources in curriculum planning

2.4 Evaluating the effectiveness of information resources used in the classroom

Section 3: The Teacher Uses Libraries Effectively

3.1 Libraries and other information agencies

3.2 Using library resources

3.3 School library services for teachers

(In the treatment of this section, attention should be directed to what is actually available as well as what might be desirably provided).

Section 4: The Teacher Locates Information

4.1 Locating information about information sources, required information in print materials

4.2 Locating information in print resources

4.3 Locating information in non-print (including audiovisual) resources

(It is suggested that attention be given to readily available materials from: Radio, Cassette recorder, Camera, as this equipment may be more frequently owned by teachers or some students).

4.4 Using audiovisual equipment

Section 5: The Teacher Produces Information Resources

5.1 Design, development and evaluation of resources

5.2 Preparation of audiovisual resources

(A note on Section 5 - The content and depth of treatment of the section depends on whether the pre-service teacher education course, and/or the in-service programmes for teachers, contain a required core component on educational media or educational technology or resource development. If there are such courses consideration should be given to the relation between that course and this proposed course so that the courses may be planned to complement each other. In that way, unknowing and unnecessary duplication may be avoided. Sufficient time for completion of both components is needed).

Section 6: The Teacher Assists Students to Use Information Resources

(This section should be presented in the light of the present situation of school library development, including the availability of teacher librarians in schools in the local area).

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Developing information location and usage skills

6.3 Promoting student resource awareness and usage

6.4 Supporting the library

Section 7: The Teacher Encourages Reading for Pleasure

7.1 Teacher and student attitudes towards reading for pleasure

7.2 Stimulation of interest in reading activities

7.3 Assisting students to develop selectivity and discrimination

SECTION I - THE TEACHER NEEDS INFORMATION AND RESOURCES

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1.1 Information Sources and Resources

1.2 Types of Information Resources

1.3 Systematic Information Seeking

SECTION I

1.1 Information Sources and Resources

Information and information resources are an integral part of the teaching/learning situation. Without information and the appropriate resources, the achievement of the school's aims and objectives can be difficult. The school has a major role in the education of children in society, and is involved in teaching and learning. Learning is the gaining of knowledge or a skill by an individual. A teacher or a school librarian cannot learn for a student. However, they can assist the student to learn by providing a supporting and stimulating environment. An integral part of that learning environment should be the provision of, and access to the widest range of information resources possible. This is part of the process of helping someone to learn.

The range of information resources available for inclusion in the school library can be vast, and can include the following:

> books, periodicals, pamphlets, newspapers, government reports, microforms, gramophone records, sound tapes, slides, overhead transparencies, maps, charts, posters, videotapes.

These resources can be divided into two distinct groups, print and non-print. Each of these information resources, whether print or non-print, has a special place in the teaching/learning environment. As a teacher you will need to be aware of the potential use of each information resource in the teaching/learning situation.

Within any community, there are a number of agencies concerned with the acquisition, storage, organisation and use of information. They are known as information agencies. Our primary interest is the school library. No school library can hope to buy, store and organise all the information resources which the teachers and students may require. This is why the school library participates in the information network made up of all the information agencies. Such participation allows the school library to borrow resources from other information agencies. This borrowing process is known as interlibrary loan, and relies on all participating information agencies co-operating together.

There are many information agencies which are not libraries. They are known as information services. These information services are usually operated by government departments, agencies and statutory authorities, and other relevant agencies. Sometimes these services will overlap. Other institutions involved in the provision of information include museums, art galleries, archives repositories and cultural centres. Sometimes private societies and organisations such as the Red Cross; churches; clubs; or self-help groups will provide an information service.

You can make a list of these agencies by consulting your local, regional and national telephone books. Sometimes the information you require, may not be available in a permanent physical form, and to obtain that information you will have to ask a person who can supply you with the necessary information. These people usually have specialist community knowledge in an area such as folklore, customs, medicine or local history. Therefore you must consider people and the value of their ability to supply unrecorded information as part of the total information network.

As part of the information network, a large number of libraries will be involved. These libraries can be broadly divided into five categories as follows:

- national libraries;
- university and college libraries, sometimes jointly known as academic libraries;
- public and community libraries;
- special libraries;
- school libraries.

The role and functions of each of these types of library will be examined in this course. However, it is important to remember that the school library is an integral part of the total school community, and has an important role to play in the achievement of the school's aims and objectives and the education of students.

As a teacher you will need a knowledge of information, information resources and information agencies, as they relate to the school environment. The pattern of information, its availability through information resources and their availability through information agencies will vary from country to country. However, within the countries in the South Pacific, there is a similar pattern, and you can become familiar with that pattern in relation to the school library and its place in the teaching/learning environment.

SECTION I

1.2 Types of Information Resources

There is a great range of information resources available to teachers. Not all resources will be found in a school library, due to differing patterns of provision. Some resources will be excluded through choice; others because there is not enough money to buy them. In the case of some non-print resources, they may be excluded due to lack of money to buy the machines or hardware needed to retrieve the information recorded on a non-print resource such as sound tape or a moving film. The decision as to which information resource will be selected for the school library should be a decision involving the teachers, the school librarian, the students, the parents and the school principal.

The range of information resources can be divided into two broad areas - print and non-print. In your studies, you may come across other terms such as book and non-book; or book and audiovisual. These are just terms to help in classifying the range of information resources into broad groups. The important thing is that you understand the total range available, and appreciate their value in the teaching/learning environment. We shall use the terms print and non-print.

Print information resources are varied in their range, their format, and the nature of information included. This means that they have different uses as sources of information. Print resources mainly consist of words in a printed format, produced by printing machines or presses. Sometimes they will include photographs, pictures, maps, charts or diagrams which help explain the words, or the text as it is known.

Print resources have many advantages, however, there are also some disadvantages. To use print resources effectively we must:

1. be able to see;
2. have the necessary reading skills;
3. understand the language in which the text is written;
4. have a subject knowledge of the topic close to the content level at which the print resource has been written.

Print resources are the most readily available educational resources and include books, newspapers, periodicals and pamphlets. All print resources require students to have the skills of reading and to be able to adjust to the language level used by the writer. The actual coverage of the subject should be at the student's own level of understanding or comprehension of the subject.

Books are published on many subjects.

(i) Books intended for students usually cover one topic or theme, and include illustrations e.g. maps, diagrams, photographs, to help the student understand the information being presented.

(ii) Books may be produced for specific school purposes, e.g. a Mathematics or English text.

(iii) Books cannot provide completely up-to-date information - some take two years from the time they are written until the time they are placed on sale.

Periodicals, or magazines, are published on a regular basis on a range of subjects. Some are concerned with one subject, while others may relate to a number of subjects. Some periodicals are intended specifically for children.

(i) Periodicals usually carry up-to-date and current information since they are published regularly.

(ii) Periodicals can provide both information and enjoyment for readers.

(iii) Periodicals help the less able reader to remain interested in the information presented because the articles are normally short and accompanied by illustrations.

Newspapers, like periodicals are designed to provide the reader with up-to-date information.

(i) Newspapers may be concerned with a special subject, or may focus on current events. They may be published daily, weekly or monthly.
(ii) By using newspapers in the teaching situation the student may develop a life-long habit of reading the newspapers to keep abreast of current happenings.
(iii) Articles and reports are short, and the poor reader is thus encouraged to understand the information being read.

Pamphlets

(i) Such resources are usually brief productions (less than 50 pp.) on very specific subjects.
(ii) As with articles in periodicals and newspapers, they can provide detailed information in a brief presentation.

Non-print resources provide information to the learner through different types of presentation. Although many of the resources listed below may not yet be found in schools which are familiar to you, it is highly possible that they will be available in later years. Unlike the print resources which require good reading skills, non-print resources can assist the less able reader by using seeing and hearing skills.

Sound recordings are a popular non-print resource, including such formats as gramophone records, sound tapes and recordings of radio broadcasts.

(i) Sound recordings demand concentrated listening skills of the learner.
(ii) The students visual abilities are not occupied when sound recordings are used. This can mean that the student may be distracted by visual stimuli in the classroom that are not concerned with the information being given.
(iii) The language and presentation of the sound recording must be at a suitable level for the student to understand and enjoy.
(iv) Some sound recordings are made more appealing to the listener through the use of background music and different voices to present the information.

Projected Still Visual Images include photographic slides, filmstrips and overhead transparencies.

(i) These materials require the use of equipment in order to project the visual image onto a screen.
(ii) Such resources result in a still image that can be closely examined by the student. This is very helpful for the student who benefits from visual stimuli in a learning situation.
(iii) Because the images are not moving, the teacher can take time to talk about different aspects of the projection. This helps the student to understand the picture being viewed.
(iv) These resources can be produced by the teacher, so that the resource can be relevant to the teaching being undertaken. (Commercial resources are sometimes irrelevant for use in a country other than where they were produced. For example, a slide set on American flowers is not as meaningful to students as a set of photographic slides illustrating their own country's native flowers.)

Non-projected Slide Images include such resources as maps, charts, posters, photographs, pictures, prints and flash cards.

(i) A major advantage in the use of these materials is that equipment is not needed to view the image. A chart or map may be rolled out on a table or displayed on a wall or pin-up board.

(ii) These resources may remain displayed for the length of time needed by the teacher.

(iii) Resources such as these can be helpful in highlighting a special point to the student.

(iv) These presentations are usually very attractive to the learner, since they are colourful, simple to understand, and easy to see.

(v) Non-projected still images may be purchased from commercial firms, or may be produced by teachers and students at little cost.

Moving Visual Images are projected images such as films, film loops, video-tape productions and television.

(i) Equipment is necessary to use these resources.

(ii) Some equipment may prevent a large group observing the image at the same time e.g. a television screen may be too small for a large class.

(iii) The students' sight (visual) and hearing (aural) skills are both being used in viewing these images. This helps the individual student to concentrate on the presentation.

(iv) Reading and literacy skills are not barriers in the child's understanding, when these resources are used.

(v) The variety and motivation that is found in these presentations helps keep the audience interested.

Artefacts are resources designed to provide students with an actual life size reproduction or model of an idea or object. The artefact might be a globe of the world; a relief model; a model of an object (e.g. an aeroplane); dioramas (three dimensional models) or real objects e.g. a dead snake, collection of shells or rocks.

(i) When students are at a stage of intellectual development that requires actual examples of objects or ideas (the "Concrete Thinking" stage), such artefacts are important.

(ii) Students can make their own artefacts which can be used to check that the students have understood the concepts taught.

SECTION I

1.3 Systematic Information Seeking

Teachers' information needs are usually in relation to the following areas:

- the educational process including new developments. In most developing countries information resources in this area will only be provided through academic libraries such as universities and teachers' colleges and national libraries. Such resources may be available on interlibrary loan but may only be available for use at the specific library.
- the education system of the country. In most countries the information resources in this area will be provided through the Ministry of Education of the country through official reports and statistical publication.
- the school curriculum of the particular school. In most countries information in this area including teaching methods will be supplied through official publications issued by the Curriculum Development Unit of the Education Department.
- the growth and development of students. School libraries and public libraries should have some information resources on this area, as well as academic libraries.
- specific aspects/details of curriculum subjects. School libraries have primary responsibility for supplying such information resources. Other sections in this course develop these areas more fully.

When seeking information, teachers need to clarify precisely what they are asking or seeking. Most of us tend to phrase our questions about information in a general way. Certainly there are times when these general questions reflect what we need, e.g. where is the library's catalogue? what is the population of New Zealand? However if we ask a librarian, "Can you give me a book on education in the United Kingdom?" when we really want the address of the local British Council Office because we want to attend an education conference, we should not be surprised if we are given the "wrong" book. Sometimes our vague questions indicate our lack of knowledge about what information can be found in different types of information resources.

When framing your request for information remember that the librarian will want to know:

- where you have already looked for information on the topic?
- why is the information needed, for what purpose?
- when is the information needed?
- at what level is the information needed?
- how much detail is required?
- what format is required?
- over what period of time should a search be made e.g. only resources published recently?

There are many ways of categorising the type of questions about information you may require. These categories help you to consider the type of information resources most likely to provide you with the answer.

1. Directional questions, e.g. where are the tape recorders? are best answered by the library staff.
2. Quick reference questions, e.g. what is the capital of Tonga? are best answered by consulting reference books such as the *Pacific Islands Yearbook*.
3. Subject-related questions, e.g. information about the development of tourism in Fiji are best answered by consulting the library's catalogue

under the subject heading Fiji and checking any bibliographies about Fiji or first looking in a general encyclopaedia under Fiji. You may need to seek the help of the library staff.

4. Research-related questions, e.g. what archaeological evidence is there on the first settlers in Tuvalu?, are best answered by consulting the library staff and asking for assistance in developing a search strategy.

To answer a subject-related question or begin work on a research question, you need to search for the information. This type of search is known as a "literature search" as it involves the use of resources - the "literature" on a subject.

The steps involved in a literature search include:

1. Clarify the meaning of the words and phrases in the question by consulting a dictionary. This step is particularly helpful in identifying similar or related words which may be used in the searching process.
2. Consult the library's catalogue under the topic/subject and list all resources held. Remember that:
   (a) general books can be relevant, e.g. a book on South Pacific history may have a chapter on Nauru.
   (b) fiction books may be useful, e.g. on the topic of Nauru, a novel by an early settler might have some useful descriptive information.
3. Consult the general encyclopaedias, e.g. *World Book Encyclopaedia*, using the index to check the topic.
4. Consult other reference resources, e.g. atlases, biographical dictionaries, yearbooks.

5. Browse through the relevant subject classified sections of the library's shelves, and note any relevant items found. Also check vertical files, picture collection or other sections of the collection which might have resources. If relevant, check the biography section of the collection.
6. Consult the periodicals by checking the periodical indexing services or the annual indexes. If using an indexing service you may find references to periodical articles which your library does not hold; make a note of them as it may be possible to obtain a copy from another library. Check this with the librarian.

The key to success in literature searching is to be systematic, proceeding through each step and recording:

- the places you have checked
- the items you have found.

This recording should be made on cards or sheets of paper and should be retained for future reference and up-dating as required.

At the completion of your search, you should compile a list of the relevant items you have found on the topic.

In order to answer your questions more easily you should get to know the appropriate type of information resource to consult. This requires a broad knowledge of three types of resources.

1. General information resources. All resources - books, periodicals, audiovisual items, are information resources. A film or a novel may give the answer to the same question and such resources should not be overlooked when seeking the answer to subject related questions.

2. Community information resources, including:

   (a) agencies outside the school from which information may be obtained, e.g. an embassy, a government department, a bookshop, college, club, church organisation or national library. The primary function of these agencies may not be to give out information, yet information is often freely available from them on request, in printed form, e.g. a pamphlet, or verbally by an official of the agency.

   (b) interpersonal sources. Before the development of writing, people were the only sources of information and today people are still a very important source of what is often called "everyday" information, e.g. an expert village fisherman can indicate good places to fish, or good ways of fishing; an agricultural scientist can give detailed instruction on ways of improving a taro crop.

3. Reference resources. These are the major source used to answer questions. Usually, these are print resources often shelved in a separate section of the library, and generally not loaned from the library because they are consulted frequently. Reference resources include:

   - encyclopaedias
   - dictionaries
   - dicretories
   - indexes to periodicals
   - biographical sources
   - yearbooks
   - bibliographies

An effective information reference service provides all of the types of information resources listed above and these will be further developed in Section 4 of this course.

Getting to Know Information Resources

Here are some suggested questions you should ask when seeking information.

1. What information will I find in this item? This may be clear from the title, e.g. *Encyclopaedia of Music*. However, closer examination may show the scope of the item is western music only, and the period covered, up to 1900. Clues to the coverage of the subject information are normally contained in:
   - title
   - table of contents
   - dust-jacket blurb
   - introduction
   - preface
   - index.

2. How reliable is the information in this item? Because information is published it does not follow that it is reliable information. It is necessary to check the authority of the persons and organisations associated with the publication of the item:
   - is the author qualified to write on the subject? If the author is academically qualified in the subject and is a known expert, there is usually no problem.
   - what sources did the author use? Were original resources used or is the item based on a reworking of known sources?
   - is the publisher known for publishing quality information or is it a firm seeking to establish a market in a new field?

   Clues to answer these questions may be found in:
   - introduction
   - dust-jacket blurb
   - publishers blurbs
   - biography of the author

- opinion of an expert in the area, e.g. a science teacher could evaluate a science reference book.
- reputation of an association or learned society involved with the publication.

3. How is the information arranged? Reference resources should be easy to use and the information easily retrieved. Common arrangements of information are:
    - alphabetical (as in a dictionary)
    - by author/name
    - by subject/topic
    - chronologically.

    Clues to assessing ease of use for different situations are:
    - presence of a comprehensive index
    - location of the table of contents
    - cross-references in text or index
    - familiar and frequently used terms.

4. Is the format easy to handle and use? The physical format of an item is an important factor in the use of reference resources.

    Some clues to use in determining ease of handling:
    - does the book lie flat when opened?
    - is the print legible, and well spaced?
    - are sufficient headings and sub-headings used?

5. Are there any pictures or illustrations in the item? Illustrations can greatly enhance the usefulness of a reference book, but the illustrations themselves need to be carefully examined to determine their reliability.

Clues to look for:

- recency of the illustrations
- wording of captions
- relationship of illustrations to the text
- inclusion of scale and recent changes in political boundaries on maps.

6. Is the information presented objectively? It is often difficult, without a knowledge of the subject in question, to assess whether or not all points of view are fully presented in a reference book. Some of the methods which can be used include:
   - checking the reputation of the author and publisher (as under 2 above)
   - reading book reviews.

   In certain situations lack of objectivity is acceptable. In a situation, for example, where an encyclopaedia is written for an American audience, it may state this. The fact that it acknowledges that it will emphasise matters relating to the U.S. and its interests makes it acceptable. Similarly, a Soviet encyclopaedia or a Catholic encyclopaedia will have coverage and viewpoints that would be expected given their individual ideological perspectives.

   Lack of objectivity in a reference book is unacceptable where this lack is not acknowledged. This is called bias. Examples of bias would be an encyclopaedia of world affairs which did not mention the developing countries, or which distorted the history by omitting events of the colonial period.

   Some ways to check the objectivity of a reference book:
   - check an item or piece of information about which you know something, e.g. relating to your own country.

- do the introduction, blurb or background of authors and publisher suggest a particular cultural, moral or intellectual viewpoint?
- are there any aspects of a subject omitted that should be included, given the scope claimed for the item?

7. What level of library user will be able to use and understand the information from this item? Reference resources are written for several types of user:
   - those who have no specialised knowledge of a subject and therefore need information written in an easy style with no jargon or difficult language. Information presented in this way is often described as being written at "popular" level.
   - those with in-depth knowledge of a topic who are familiar with technical terms and need no simplification of the material. Information presented for this group is often called scholarly.
   - for juveniles and adult new readers there are some reference resources written in a simplified form, with short sentences, a limited vocabulary and many illustrations.

An understanding of the level of a reference resource may be carried out as follows:

- the introduction and publisher's blurb which may give an indication of the level
- your ease of understanding or otherwise on a topic you know nothing about may give you an indication of level.

8. Is the information up-to-date? Many subject areas are changing rapidly, e.g. science and technology requiring up-to-date information. In other areas, e.g. history, this is not so critical. To check on the recency of an item:

- note date of publication
- note publication dates of items listed in the bibliographies
- examine illustrations, e.g. the dress worn by the people in a photograph
- check recent changes of names, e.g. is the independence of Tuvalu mentioned?
- check the publisher's statements of policy on revision of the reference book.

In making your assessment of the reference resource, remember that it takes from 6 months to 2 years to collect information and publish it. One cannot therefore expect all reference work to be absolutely up to the minute unless such a claim is made, for the item in question.

SECTION 2 - THE TEACHER USES RESOURCES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

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SECTION 2

2.1 Function and Utilisation of Resources in Teaching and Student Learning

Ideas about education have changed in important ways in the last twenty years, affecting some of the ways in which children are educated. In many countries education in the classroom was knowledge-centred: a student would be expected to learn certain facts about a subject or topic. After memorising the required facts, the teacher would ask students to demonstrate their knowledge in a test situation. This assessment of knowledge might be managed by a written test, or by some other evaluation. The emphasis with such education is on the remembering of facts, rather than the understanding of ideas. This type of learning is commonly called rote learning.

The rote learning method ignores that the facts we learn are very quickly forgotten, unless the learner can use them immediately. If these facts cannot be applied to the daily activities being undertaken, the learner cannot see them as being relevant or useful. The knowledge originally learnt is lost to the user once it is forgotten. Skills of finding that knowledge again at a later date are not developed. The learner is also not encouraged to comprehend the meaning behind the factual information that was first learnt. It is hard, then, to use meaning as a starting point for rediscovering the facts that were once known by the student, since meaning was not a part of the initial learning process.

A further difficulty with this style of education is that the individual is not considered. Every student, in a rote learning situation, is expected to learn the same facts in the same way. The learning process does not allow for particular differences between people: the same techniques are supposed to be successful with every learner.

Today there is an emphasis on teaching the student a process of learning where the process and the related skills will be useful in later life. For example, with rote-learning teaching strategies, the teacher might insist that the student learns particular facts about the history of a country. These facts can often appear as unrelated individual pieces of information. New educational ideas rely more on teaching the student a process of learning with related skills of finding the facts, the information when required, rather than on learning facts. This style of teaching is commonly called a skills-centred approach.

This change in teaching has been caused by a number of differences in present day society. Facts can quickly become dated. A scientific idea or concept that is learnt by a student one year, may be regarded as incorrect by experts at a later time, as more information or understanding of the concept is developed. The student cannot rely on facts learnt at school as providing accurate information later in his life.

Although subjects are still the basis for organising an educational programme the techniques of acquiring knowledge about a subject have changed with an emphasis on locating and retrieving information.

Educational thought has also changed in understanding the way in which people learn. In the rote learning, knowledge-centred approach, students memorised facts so that they could repeat them later in a test situation. This repetition did not mean that the student could either understand, or apply the knowledge. The student, who was involved with the rote learning procedure was not encouraged to think about the material that had been learnt. The meaning or implications of the knowledge were not often understood by the student.

Education is a process where the student learns to describe and assess ideas, theories, laws upon which our lives are based.

The student needs opportunities to closely examine the information being presented in this process. From this first analysis, further opportunities to apply the same ideas, theories, laws to new situations should be provided for students. This application helps the student to demonstrate an understanding of the ideas, laws, theories that have been studied, as well as to relate such ideas to his own observations in specific situations.

For example, a student may find information about the life cycle of a particular animal living in the local area. This information may not be meaningful until the student has observed for himself parts of this life cycle. From actual observation the student may be able to demonstrate better understanding of such a theory or law of life.

There has also been a shift from the subject-centred approach to the child-centred approach in education. Studies have shown that each child has a special way of learning, which may effect the type of learning resources used. Some students learn quickly by reading, others by listening, others by seeing pictures, and others need a combination of all three. Education should aim to provide each student with the learning situation that best suits that student. The teacher should consider each student when planning learning activities. The teacher can be greatly assisted by the variety of learning resources available such as books, newspapers, radio programmes, films, pictures and charts.

Different skills are needed for using different resources. In order to effectively use print resources, for example, the student must be able to read. Listening abilities are essential for locating useful facts in a radio programme. When viewing a poster, the student must be capable of "perceiving" the ideas that are expressed in visual form.

Students need to identify the points of view presented in any information resource. A presentation may be biased toward one point of view on a particular subject. The student should be able to identify particular viewpoints, and to take these into account in his understanding of the subject.

Each type of information resource has advantages and disadvantages which the teacher considers before using it with a class. In addition the specific student group and the individual differences of the students are noted, before a particular format is chosen. It is also important that the resource selected is appropriate or suitable to the lesson that it is supporting. For example, a film that demonstrates an artistic method would be much more helpful than a book about the method, since the film would allow the students to observe the actual method being practised.

The teacher should be aware of the special characteristics of each type of resource, as outlined in Section I of this Course.

SECTION 2

2.2 Evaluation and Selection of Specific Information Resources

Resources should be selected by the teacher only after careful evaluation of their qualities in relation to the teaching/ learning goal to be achieved.

When selecting teaching/learning resources the teacher should consider criteria and evaluate the resource against this criteria.

The following criteria have been developed to apply to all types of resources.

1. *Accurate and Authentic*?

    (i) Every resource chosen by the teacher should contain *accurate facts*, resources that are used by students should provide correct information.

    (ii) The manner in which the information is presented should be *objective*, personal bias by the author should be excluded. A good resource offers all perspectives on a topic, rather than concentrating on the viewpoint. If a resource is biased in its presentation, the teacher may choose to use the item but also select a second resource offering other opinions or arguments.

    (iii) The information should be *up-to-date*, essential in many subject areas but not as important in creative writing.

    (iv) The *qualifications of the author* may be a useful check as to the accuracy of the work, e.g. a book on anatomy of the human body should be written by an expert in the field of biology.

    (v) *Reference sources*, such as reviews of the resource, or notes on the author's qualifications may be referred to by the teacher to check on the *reliability of the work*.

2. Appropriate in Content and Presentation?

Assessment of the appropriateness relates to:

(a) whether the presentation suits the student group, and

(b) whether the information is appropriate to the students' background and needs.

(i) Vocabulary Level

Whether a resource is print, or non-print, the language level should suit the specific students. If the language level is greatly above or below the abilities of the students with whom the resources are to be used they either find the information too simple or too difficult.

Consider the following questions:

Is the language at a level that challenges the students but can also be understood by them?

Does the language used run smoothly and logically, so that the students can follow the line of thought?

(ii) Content Presentation Level

The information given should show the concepts at an appropriate level for the students concerned. e.g. if the students are at primary school level, studying the topic "Foods", they do not need a scientific chemical study of the natural substances which make up food (e.g. proteins, fats, etc.) Instead, a book that looks at types of foods, such as vegetables, meats, etc. would be more suitable.

(iii) Supporting Data should be relevant to the subject of the work. Sometimes an author includes a number of relevant diagrams which may confuse students or be incorrectly used by them. On the other hand students' learning may be affected by the lack of useful data. e.g. an author outlining a mathematical concept without illustrations to demonstrate the concept.

(iv) Medium - Subject Matching
Sometimes a resource format is chosen that does not suit the information being provided. e.g. artistic works are best presented in the form of prints or photographic copies resulting in accurate examples for the students to observe and appreciate. A tape recording of a talk on the same subject, unaccompanied by pictorial examples, would be of less use to the students in appreciating the artist's work.

(v) Presentation of the Material should reflect the message that is being presented. Music, for example, should reflect the mood that is established in a film - whether that atmosphere is excitement or serenity or some other feeling. The narrator on a tape recording should add to the atmosphere being created. The way in which the voices are used may affect the success of the presentation. Sound effects can also help to make the information more meaningful.

(vi) Usefullness of the Resource in the Actual Classroom
If the teacher wants to use the resource with thirty students, it must be possible for each to clearly hear or see the presentation. If this is not possible, the teacher should consider other methods and resources e.g. divide the class into groups, so that each group is using a different resource at the same time. This would, of course mean more than one resource or activity would need to be provided by the teacher.

3. Suitable Scope?

(i) The method for determining scope - if the resource is printed, check the table of contents, index, and possibly, chapter headings and sub-divisions. These should enable the teacher to rapidly see the coverage of the resource. The teacher can then read portions of the resource more closely to see if they will be useful.

Many resources that are audio, visual or audio-visual, contain a copy of the "script" in an introductory booklet. This can be very helpful in previewing the resource and the teacher can determine the scope suitability from this guide.

The booklet may also contain a list of goals that it is hoped students will achieve after experiencing the resource. The teacher may compare these with the specific teaching objectives that it is hoped will be reached. If these match, then the resource will be helpful in supporting the teacher's programme.

It is possible that the scope of only one part of the resource corresponds to the teacher's requirements. The teacher might consider using that part as part of a lesson activity.

(ii) The Treatment of the Work Should Reflect the Students' Educational Needs

Once the teacher has tested the scope of the work, to discover the information coverage, the manner in which the information is presented must be carefully examined. The teacher needs to check that the material relates to the student needs e.g. the teacher should consider whether the students need to be introduced to a concept in simple, easy to understand terms. Or need challenging, in depth material that expands a topic they have become familiar with. The scope of the work must be critically viewed to discover the adequacy of the approach for the particular students and the particular teaching goals.

4. Presented in an Interesting Way?

A resource may suit the teacher's requirements concerning its scope, but may still be unsuitable for use with students. In order to gain and maintain student attention, the material needs to be interestingly presented.

(i) The Medium Format Should be Presented in an Attractive Manner

Each resource format can be produced to keep the user interested during the information presented. With sound recordings, for example, background music may help gain and maintain listener interest. Sound effects also help towards this goal. There should, where possible, be different speakers on the recording so that the listener is offered variety. If the presentation consists of one long monotonous talk, the teacher should consider rejecting the resource, since the students will find it difficult to concentrate on one speaker for any length of time.

Print materials, to interest students, should exhibit varied presentation. Illustrations are valuable additions helping the reader to understand the text. They also divide the page into smaller sections of text. Although colour illustrations are attractive, black and white can also prove to be of great interest.

(ii) The Language of the resource should be interesting to the student. The level of the approach should appeal to the student's own development. A restrained, dignified manner may deter young students from responding. An enthusiastic, energetic presentation may be much more appealing and stimulating.

(iii) The Intellectual Content of the resource should be considered in addition to the physical factors which help create interest. The student should be able to relate to the information presented. If there is a gap between the ideas presented in the resource and the awareness of the student, the teacher should consider providing an introduction to fill this gap. e.g. if the resource covers the social habits of another people, the teacher could assist the students in developing an awareness of their own country's social habits first. With this heightened awareness, the students will be able to comprehend and relate to the new information much more easily. As a result of this introduction, the resource takes on greater value in developing the student's understanding of the topic.

(iv) The Resource Content Should be Presented in a Way that Offers Challenge to the Student

Students have a great desire to learn - they enjoy discovering new knowledge. If the resource is presenting information that is already known by the students, they can lose interest. If, however, the information is new, it may challenge the student and gain his attention.

The teacher should be aware of the student's level of knowledge on the topic, so that the amount of challenge that is offered is realistic.

(v) The Resource Should Encourage Student Curiosity

The student should want to use the resource in order to find answers to questions. These queries may be developed through the presentation itself, or they may be encouraged, by the introduction of the teacher. The students' curiosity may be stimulated by a number of methods:

- questions asked at the beginning of the presentation;
- the topic may be developed by focussing on a particular aspect of interest to the students, such as a particular character's point of view that is highlighted in the presentation;
- an introductory presentation may raise questions that are attention-gaining;
- an interesting, unusual beginning to the presentation may attract the students' attention;
- pictures or photographs that are of interest to the students may be included.

The teacher should be aware of these techniques, and look for resources that may arouse student curiosity and interest.

(vi) The Information Presented Should be Credible to the Student

Once again, it is necessary for the teacher to assess the students' level of understanding. If it seems that they will have difficulty in accepting the truth of the presentation because they lack experience in that area, the teacher would need to introduce the class to the ideas before using the resource in class. Otherwise, the students may refuse to accept such "silly" information, because it doesn't relate to their previous understanding.

It is also true that the "incredible" nature of the information may appeal to the students. The teacher needs to be familiar with the class characteristics to decide whether to use the resource or to reject it because it is too different to the students' current knowledge.

(vii) The Students' Imaginations Should be Stimulated

An important educational goal is that of helping students to become more imaginative or creative. Many resources are designed to provide information that should stimulate students toward developing these abilities. This may be done by presenting new information or ideas, or by asking questions that the students are left to think about. The resource does not need to answer every problem that is introduced. It may be a very good item if it outlines an interest area, and leaves students to consider the implications.

(viii) The Resource Presentation Should Appeal to the Students' Senses

Young people need constant stimulation of their senses through the use of sight, sound, smell or touch. Many resources are designed to develop one or more of these capacities in the students. The teacher should be aware of the need to incorporate these into learning activities e.g. a radio presentation might be listened to, but a poster that focussed the students' sight on a related illustration would also help maintain attention.

In evaluating a resource then, the teacher should examine the ways in which a students' senses are stimulated. These may be developed by the inclusion of sound recordings, or illustrations, or the provision of actual examples that students may handle, or worksheets that direct the students' minds and sight to a series of questions that are being covered in the resource presentation.

5. Well Organised?

No matter how attractive a resource appears to be, it must also be well organised to be of use to the teacher. If this is not the case, then it should be rejected, since the teacher may find that students have difficulty in obtaining information from the resource.

(i) The Material Should be Presented in a Logical Order
Each new piece of information should be introduced, carefully explained, defined and illustrated by an example where possible. When this step has been demonstrated, the next item of information can be introduced. The development of the topic should be logical, progressing from one point to the next. There should not be excessive repetition of the information once it has been properly discussed.

(ii) The Information Should be Organised into Small Sections for Easy Identification
To assist both students and the teacher to select useful aspects of the presentation, the information should be divided into small sections of material. In a book, for example, key words, paragraphs or section titles and descriptions of illustrations should be included.

A filmstrip resource that looks at several aspects of a topic should be organised into separate strips, so that only the relevant filmstrip needs to be used, rather than having to locate the section on a large roll of film.

This organisation technique helps the teacher or student to select the best resource quickly and easily. Such organisation is important if time is a problem in using the resource.

(iii) All Sequences Should Relate to the Resource Theme
The teacher should check that all parts of the resource are relevant to the topic which it is supposed to support. It sometimes happens that parts are included because they look interesting, but they are not very informative. These should be noted, and discarded if or when the teacher uses that resource.

6. Technical Quality Satisfactory?

When the teacher has determined that a resource will inform, stimulate and guide the students in learning about a topic, there are still some aspects that need to be considered. The physical presentation of the resource must be assessed. Teachers, for example, need to check that the actual quality of the resource is still suitable to use. Some resources are badly affected by age, and may be unsuitable for use. Others may be poorly produced, although the concepts and approach to the topic hold great promise.

A sound recording should be clear in its reproduction. If there are background noises, or poor recording of the voices, or the musical background blocks out the speakers, the students will find it difficult to listen to or understand. In such cases, the recording may be too poor, in a technical sense, to use in the classroom. It should be rejected by the teacher.

Visual images should be clear (not blurred or out-of-focus). The detail of the pictures should be sufficient to illustrate the information e.g. the diagram should not be too detailed if it is to demonstrate an overall concept. If it is highlighting a small part, for example, of a flower, a close-up illustration should be presented. An illustration of the whole plant in a garden would be unsatisfactory.

7. Notes Supplied?

Where they are supplied, the teacher should examine accompanying notes, teachers guides or student guides. These are all aids to use with the students, or in planning the programme.

The resource, if it refers to materials such as pamphlets or activities, should contain examples of these. Some resources provide class sets of relevant support material.

8. Constraints Relating to the Specific School?

When the teacher has selected a resource which appears to contribute to the teaching/learning programme, there may still be other considerations:

(i) The Ease Of Handling
The teacher may find it necessary to prepare the resource for class use in a matter of minutes. Some resources, such as a multi-media kit consisting of slides, cassette recordings, charts and worksheets, may require preparation before class. It is important that the teacher plans the use of a resource early enough to set it up before the class arrives and to prepare any supporting materials that should be created.

(ii) Equipment Availability should be checked. The teacher needs to make sure that the appropriate equipment is available, and that it is not being used by another teacher at the time required. This may mean that the teacher has to "book" or register a request to use the equipment.

(iii) Cost

If the teacher is selecting a resource in order to purchase it for the school, there should be a careful examination of the cost involved. Some factors that could be considered are:

- Are there cheaper resources that cover the topic in a similar way?
- Is there equipment available for that format?
- Does the school already have resources on that subject that cover the topic adequately?
- What is the expected life of the resource? Will it be able to be used many times or only once?
- Can parts of the resource be replaced if they are lost or damaged?
- Can the resource be borrowed rather than purchasing it?

These are general, but very useful criteria that the teacher should consider when choosing resources to use in classroom learning experiences. It can be seen that the teacher, before selecting a resource, needs to be aware of the students' abiliites and needs, as well as the planned educational goals. Only with these in mind, can the teacher make proper choices.

SECTION 2

2.3 Integration of Resources in Curriculum Planning

Today, the teacher plays an important role in developing learning opportunities suited to their particular class group, reflecting the special needs, interests and abilities of the students. These learning opportunities should be designed to stimulate and challenge the students through activities that offer opportunities for students to grow in awareness and understanding.

The educational process should provide a range of learning experiences which encourage students to develop logical thinking skills rather than collecting unrelated and individual items of information.

Knowledge is often the learning level achieved by most students in the classroom. A student can read an outline of a topic and demonstrate a familiarity with that topic by repeating the information he has read. The student is using the ability to memorise rather than to understand.

Comprehension is a further level in the learning process. In order to comprehend information, a student must relate what he has read and understood to previous knowledge and experiences. The new information is fitted into the student's own mind as a new part of his understanding. To demonstrate comprehension of the new knowledge the student should be able to explain, or describe, the idea in his own words, or through a different medium. e.g. after reading a description of a thunderstorm, the student could draw pictures which indicate an understanding of the storm, or enact a play of people caught in the storm, or write a short account of their own experiences during a thunderstorm. Whichever method is used, the student should be able to demonstrate an awareness of the main points about a thunderstorm. This is the basic level of understanding, where the concept is understood without relating it to similar concepts.

Application of the concept requires a higher level of understanding on the part of the student. After comprehending an idea or theory, the student should be encouraged to use that concept in their own environment. The abstract or theoretical idea should be applied to an actual situation.

A class may, for example, be exploring the topic of insects. After studying the general principles of insect life cycles, the students could apply this understanding to the life cycle of a local insect with which they are familiar. By identifying the particular stages in this insect's life cycle, the students show they can apply the general principles they have studied.

Analysis is the process of studying relationships between theories and concepts, and requires a more advanced level of student understanding. Students learn to analyse the principles and theories introduced to them.

To use the former example, after applying the principles of insect life cycles to an actual insect, using the understanding that has been developed, the student might analyse the principles of life cycles by examining a different species and describing its particular life cycle.

Synthesis is a further level in the learning process, involving the student in combining aspects of different learning experiences so that skills can be used in entirely new, combined situations. The student is not only applying the information and principles learnt, but is also developing new methods, using different parts of previous learning experiences. The student is, in effect, putting many old parts together, to form a new whole idea. The facts are examined and patterns that were not known before are recognised and used.

Evaluation, the final stage in the learning process, involves the student in making judgements about the value of information or methods used in a situation. To solve a problem, the student should be able to select the best information and learning approach to examine the problem.

Evaluation may include the assessment of an actual resource or method by comparison with other available resources or methods.

These stages in the learning process are important considerations in developing teaching programmes. The teacher should be conscious of the need to encourage students to use the information they acquire. Memorising facts is a meaningless activity if it is not accompanied by an application of the information acquired.

Another aspect of student learning concerns affective or values learning. Not only is the education programme designed to provide the student with learning of skills, but it is also intended to help students acquire values important throughout their lives.

Values development has a number of identifiable levels, with each new level requiring an increased involvement and commitment by the student. The goal of this learning is to encourage the student to make decisions based on balanced, objective judgement. In addition, affective learning is important in encouraging the student to learn with imagination, efficiency and enjoyment.

The affective learning levels are:

Receiving (attending) At this level the student reacts to learning stimuli and obtains the information or skills as a result of that interest or response. It can be seen that the encouragement of student interest and motivation is very important in gaining and holding the student's attention.

Responding is the second level and implies that the student reacts to the messages received. In other words, they are interested in talking about, or reacting to, the information in some way. The student response may simply consist of thinking about the information.

From this level, the student may advance to the next of Valuing the ideas that have been introduced. The values are recognised as being worthwhile to the student. The teacher then has contributed towards developing the student's awareness of worthwhile values.

Organising these values indicates a further growth level in the student's affective learning. The student needs to consider types of attitudes that are currently held. These are organised into a range of importance to that student. A student may, for example, decide that playing sport is a more vital skill than communicating with others. This means that the student is establishing a system of priorities or values.

Finally, the student may realise that although establishing such priorities or values is important, it is more helpful if the values are organised into similar groups, that is the values are characterised by type. In this way, the student might realise that playing sport is the most valued leisure activity, but that being able to work with other people in a community or school task is important for their social development.

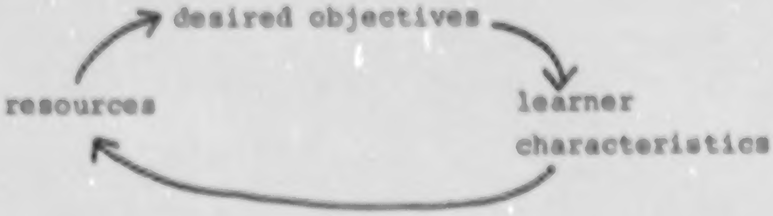
These can be very adult ideas for a student. However, increasingly students are being asked to make decisions at a young age which will influence future directions. The teacher should provide opportunities for the student to observe, experience, examine and evaluate a range of values and attitudes. From these activities, the student can develop a set of personal values and goals.

In creating educational programmes that encourage these two areas of cognitive thinking and affective development, a variety of resources and techniques are important in helping to motivate the student to be involved in the learning process. They contribute toward the analysis of different values and concepts and illustrate ideas by different methods improving each student's opportunities for understanding.

Planning a Curriculum

Resources must be considered in the early stages of planning a curriculum. The teacher should not rely on one type of resource only, such as a textbook. Students need a stimulating and challenging learning environment and a variety of resources can help make this possible. The use of resources can also aid the teacher in working with groups of students rather than the whole class, which may lead to an improved level of student understanding and skills, since the teacher is able to guide the individual student.

To make maximum use of the resources available, the teacher should consider three important factors in the design of curriculum:



The teacher should consider the general learning goals to be achieved. These should be noted down, and key concepts and skills should be highlighted.

For example, the teacher might decide that:

> "At the conclusion of the lesson the students will demonstrate an understanding of the insect life cycle by drawing the life cycle of a local insect."

The key points for this lesson then, will be:

1. General theories of insect life cycles.
2. Examination of local insect life cycles.

Before examining the availability of resources for this lesson the teacher should examine the objective in relation to the students. Perhaps they have explored this topic before, and need a new developed approach through several lessons. Or a more basic introduction is required. When the teacher has considered the student's needs, interests and capabilities, resources can then be considered.

For the above objective, the teacher would need to explore the available resources on both general studies of insect life cycles and on local insects. Probably there will only be resources for the first aspect. This does not mean that the activity should be dropped by the teacher. Instead, the teacher needs to consider the ways in which students might find information on the local insect.

Local resources such as museums might be able to assist. The teacher might consider writing to scientific organisations for any resources they might be able to loan or donate. Perhaps the teacher could develop a set of photographic prints. Or the teacher could encourage the students to observe some insects in a captive state in the classroom as they go through their life cycle. As the students experience the changes, they can apply this learning to the general life cycle theory.

The teacher then, is guiding the students in using relevant resources to acquire basic principles or concepts that are needed. From this point, the students are encouraged to analyse and apply the general ideas to their own world. This is one of the major purposes of learning. As well as becoming familiar with ideas relating to natural science, the students are also learning and using important study and thinking techniques.

It should be noted that the teacher must plan the new curriculum well in advance of the time that it is to be used. If it is necessary to locate new resources on a topic outside the school, the teacher will need time to locate these. Time must also be allowed for these organisations to answer the request for help. It may be necessary to "book" a resource weeks ahead. Or the teacher may need to make new resources, and these also require time to think about them and produce them.

If the teacher finds that resources in both the community and the school are not of use, it may be helpful to adapt the objective so that available material is able to be included.

When evaluating the available resources, the teacher should apply the selection principles that were discussed earlier. Basically, the teacher must examine the resource against the two criteria of:

(a) student abiliites and needs, and
(b) stated lesson objectives.

If the resources appear to meet these two criteria, then the more specific factors such as technical quality can be assessed. If the available resources seem very suitable for the student levels, but do not satisfy the objective's requirements, the teacher could adapt the lesson goals to make the best use of the resources.

If a teacher-librarian is available in the school, the teacher should request assistance in evaluating the available resources to suit the proposed learning activity. The teacher-librarian is skilled in evaluating resources, and planning programmes. Using such guidance, the teacher should be able to ascertain the coverage of the topic in the available resources quite quickly

If resources are available, and the teacher is able to relate these to the established objectives, the selection of activities may then be made. The teacher hopes to make the best use of time, resources and student effort to achieve the goals that have been set. This requires careful planning and thought. Each resource selected as being an important aid must be examined also for its limitations. For example, a photographic study print may be too small for an entire class to view at once. The teacher would have to consider ways in which smaller groups could use the item, and develop different activities for the other students which also assist the students toward achieving that objective.

Some teachers find an interesting and effective way of breaking the class into smaller learning groups is to develop several different experiences that work toward a number of different objectives within a common goal. The groups work on each activity at different times, so that they are all achieving the required learning on the topic. During the time the teacher is free to supervise, guide and assist individual students or groups.

Total curriculum development involves one more step: evaluation. It is important that the teacher checks that the students understand the information they have learnt. As well as assessing student understanding, the teacher should aim at challenging the student toward higher levels of thinking and learning. Copying of information should not be accepted by the teacher. A better method would be to design an assessment that requires the students to think about the information learnt, and to synthesize this with a useful part of their understanding and awareness.

For example, the teacher might have introduced the students to the concept of "law". In the past, the students might have been required to memorise or copy current laws. An activity that would help the students apply the principles of law, and to develop their own values, would be to ask them to create ten basic rules that they would use in an imaginary country. In this way, the students are forced to consider the information they have been introduced to, and to analyse the principles. From this initial application, they are then more prepared to explore the information on principles of law which are in force in their own country. These can be compared and evaluated with the concepts they themselves have developed.

Skills that have been previously learnt by students should be regularly included in new learning opportunities. If students have, for example, learnt to "read" a picture by identifying information to be found in it, the teacher should provide more opportunities to practice this skill.

Where possible, skills learnt previously should be part of any new activity. In this way, the students can see that the teacher values the skill or technique.

SECTION 2

2.4 Evaluating the Effectiveness of Information Resources Used in the Classroom

Once the teacher has selected a resource for use in a teaching programme, it then needs to be adequately and effectively used by both the student and the teacher.

Students need to be guided in the particular skills required for each resource by helping them to develop skills of locating information and evaluating the success with which they can use resources.

1. Books and Other Printed Resources

(i) These resources include such items as class sets of reading materials; extended reading resources; illustrated library books and curriculum-related works.

(ii) Skills required to use such printed resources are those most commonly recognised by teachers as being important. The student must be able to read; to recognise the printed words on a page. This is often tested in the classroom by requesting students to read aloud. This can cause students some embarrassment, if they have difficulty recognising symbols. Such students can be assisted by using resources which relate to the student's own interests and background. Students are often more motivated to read if provided with such resources. If the student is a good reader, there is need to stimulate and challenge them through the provision of extended reading resources.

Students do not read the same materials at the same pace. Students need a wide range of resources which interest them and enables them to select a book or magazine at their interest and language level.

Poor readers need introduction to resources which might motivate them in their attempt to read. This may be through talking about particular resources; reading extracts from them; encouraging other students to talk about books or resources they have read; displaying resources in the classroom for students to select for reading or for browsing.

(ii) Activities to test the students' reading abilities will be centred on the ability of the student to comprehend, apply, analyse, synthesize or evaluate the material being read.

Asking students to write "everything" they know on a general topic encourages copying without understanding. With this assessment, the student is not asked to demonstrate an ability to "discriminate". The student should be asked to carefully read, understand, apply and evaluate the information on an aspect of a specific topic found in a resource, and then submit in the student's own words an analysis of the aspect demonstrating understanding of the topic. Students need to be able to discriminate in their analysis. The inclusion of every fact indicates the student cannot discriminate between useful and useless items of information.

(iii) The students need to be trained in the methods of finding information in a printed resource by using such guides as the index and contents page to determine the relevance of the resource.

This use of guides needs to be encouraged and can be introduced initially, and then practised by the class when using resources at all times.

The teacher can indicate the value of "information skills" by allocating assessment marks to the student's initial techniques of locating useful information. The student is then more likely to consider the skill as important.

2. Non-Projected Still Images

(i) Posters, charts, diagrams and illustrations in books are important sources of information for students. Unfortunately, students are less "literate" in "reading" information from visual images. They find it difficult to discriminate between relevant parts of the picture and those elements that are not as important.

(ii) Visual material is a simple format that provides an attractive focus for the students' eyes. As with all resources used by the teacher, the material selected should be relevant to the teaching programme, and also to the student's visual abilities. The motivated student is more likely to be involved in actively searching for information and questioning what is seen in a picture than in a printed resource.

(iii) These resources are useful in starting a discussion; demonstrating an idea; or summarising the discussion that has taken place. They are also helpful in explaining concepts.

(iv) A picture may be used at different levels of student development, by directing the student's attention to specific concepts that are illustrated and which relate to student's particular abilities at particular stages of their life.

(v) In order to help students develop visual discrimination in examining illustrations, the teacher may encourage students to read the captions under the illustrations and to examine the diagrams as a method of obtaining information from the illustration.

A poster may be displayed and students asked what they see
(a) generally
(b) in relation to the specific topic,
encouraging the students to see the difference between merely looking at an illustration and actually studying it carefully to obtain information.

Questions can be devised to direct the students' attention to important pieces of information. These questions should emphasise the actual data that is provided in the illustration, as well as extend the students' thoughts beyond the immediate subject.

3. Projected Visual Images

When students have developed some skill in visual discrimination, they may be able to develop similar skills in using films, filmstrips or slides.

4. Sound Recordings and Radio Programmes

"Aural literacy", the ability to listen, and obtain information is one of the more difficult skills for a student to acquire. This is partly because only the students' hearing is occupied while visual distractions of mental thoughts may intrude and be more interesting to the student. In using sound productions then, a poster may be helpful in focussing the student's attention on a visual object that relates to the recording.

Another useful technique involves guiding the student's attention toward important or relevant parts of the recording. This may be done in several ways:

(i) An activity sheet to direct the student's attention to important points and asking them to complete sentences. For example:

"The six main foods in this country are:
1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________"

When developing such a sheet the student's abilities need consideration. If they are, for example, slow to respond, an activity such as the one above would be difficult to complete quickly. A more appropriate activity might be:

"List two main foods in this country:
1. ____________________
2. ____________________"

Students will need time to respond to the question and it is better if questions are regularly spaced through the recording, so that there is not a demand for several to be quickly answered, and then a long time for students to lose interest.

The recording can be stopped to provide the students time to fill in their worksheet. Students can then consider the question and record the information that has been presented.

(ii) Key points may be written on a board and discussed by the teacher, and students asked to listen for them on the recording. Students may be asked to make short notes about those key points as they hear relevant information. This encourages students to discriminate between relevant information and that which is merely interesting.

(iii) Some teachers find it useful to talk briefly about the main points to be heard on a recording. Students then listen to the recording then discuss the information they have noted. This requires a high level of concentration and indicates the students have achieved a high level of "aural discrimination". The wuality and appeal of the presentation is important in keeping student interest with this method.

(iv) Some students will need to listen to the recording more than once. They should be encouraged to do this, with the guidance of key questions or points, so that their skill is improved. This might be done with small groups, or the individual student might use the material independently.

5. Summary

Resources need to be selected in relation to the teaching/learning activity. They need to be relevant to the topic/concept being developed. Students who are being educated to consider new concepts can be confused by resources on the concept that are difficult to use.

Students should be encouraged to use and explore resources for themselves. The teacher may wish to introduce the use of a resource in class, and then encourage the class to re-use it either in groups or individually. Students need many opportunities for practising these techniques.

Students can be encouraged to produce their own resource, e.g. a tape, a book etc. This provides the students with an understanding of the principles involved through the medium selected. This production exercise also helps assess the level of student understanding, for the student has to explain the concept by using a new format.

The process of selecting resources for inclusion in a learning programme initially involves planning and subsequently evaluation:

1. of the resource's effectiveness
2. that students have acquired the necessary skills.

SECTION 3 - THE TEACHER USES LIBRARIES EFFECTIVELY

Contents:

3.1 Libraries and Other Information Agencies

3.2 Using Library Resources

3.3 School Library Services for Teachers

SECTION 3

3.1 Libraries and Other Information Agencies

In any country there are many institutions and agencies concerned with the generation, distribution, use, storage, preservation and sometimes evaluation of information. As well as the school library, the government of a country usually provides library service through:

- a national library;
- university and college libraries;
- public and community libraries;
- special libraries.

National Libraries

Most countries have a national library or a national library service established under an act of parliament, or similar legislative government decision. The functions of a national library are usually:

(a) to develop a comprehensive collection of information resources about the country and its people;

(b) to store, preserve and organise these information resources, so that they will be available for use by the present generation, and also by future generations;

(c) to develop a research collection of information resources about nearby countries, and other subject areas at an international level;

(d) to compile and produce national bibliographic information, such as the national bibliography, national periodical indexes, national union catalogues, and other publications such as a directory of a country's libraries and their holdings;

(e) to act as a catalyst and be a stimulus for library development in the country.

A national library will usually try to collect all information resources that have been:

(a) published in its country, regardless of language or subject;
(b) written by nationals of that country, regardless of country of publishing, language, and subject;
(c) written about the country and its people, regardless of where published and the nationality of those responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the work.

A national library collects both print and non-print resources, but often is more concerned with print resources. This is because other information agencies such as a museum, cultural centre, or art gallery may have been given responsibility for collecting many of the non-print resources. The national library co-operates with these other information agencies, and this helps form the information network. In some countries, there may not be a national library. However, when this happens, other libraries usually take over all or some of the functions of a national library. A university library, or a public library or a parliamentary library, or all three may be involved in sharing the functions. When a national library is formed, these libraries pass over these functions. This was the case in Papua New Guinea. Before the National Library of Papua New Guinea was formed, the functions were divided broadly as follows:

(a) the public library in Port Moresby was collecting materials of national significance;
(b) the library of the University of Papua New Guinea was also collecting materials of national significance, and producing national bibliographic information;
(c) the archives repository was collecting materials of a national significance.

With the formation of the National Library of Papua New Guinea,

(a) the public library transferred its collection of national significance to the new library;
(b) the university library transferred its national bibliographic information functions to the new library, but did not transfer its collection;
(c) the archives repository became part of the new library.

The libraries in academic institutions other than in the school, have a special place in the information network of a country. You will find libraries in a university, a polytechnic, a teachers college, a technical college, an agricultural college, a bible college, or in any institution which has a post secondary school education function.

The academic library is part of a larger education institution. The library will therefore reflect the aims and objectives of that institution, and its operation should contribute to the achievement of the institution's aims and objectives. The academic library will normally have the following functions:

(a) to develop a collection of relevant information resources, both print and non-print, to support the teaching programme of the institution;
(b) to teach students of the institution how to identify, locate, evaluate and use effectively appropriate information resources;
(c) to provide services to the students, teaching staff, and sometimes members of the wider community, to ensure effective use of the collection, and other resources through the information network.

The size of the collection, the subject areas covered, the type of resources included in the collection, and the services offered will depend on the institution's aims and objectives, and the number of student enrolments. The size of the collection will also be determined by the amount of funds available, the subjects taught and the age of the institution. A newly established academic institution usually has a small library collection, but over a number of years, the collection will grow. Some academic institutions are not only concerned with teaching, but also research. They are usually a university, a polytechnic or a specialist college such as an agricultural college. If an academic institution is involved in research, then this will be reflected in the institution's library through the type of collection, and the services offered. The academic library caters largely for a clearly defined group of people. It will know the number of teaching staff and the number of students, and can plan its growth and services accordingly. This is different to the national library which operates to serve the people of a nation, at the present and the future.

The public library is another type of library which forms part of a country's information network. The term public refers to all the people living in a country. However, not all those people will have access to a public library and therefore only a percentage of the total population use a public library. Ideally the public library will provide:

(a) a collection of information resources and recreational resources for use by members of the community served;
(b) services to that community to ensure the resources are available and used effectively;
(c) a specialist collection and service involving local or community information.

This involvement with local or community information is a characteristic unique to the public library. The public library gathers information about the community, and makes it available. This information might be about local societies and clubs;

people with special skills, or about the history of the area. Sometimes the public library co-operates with information workers such as the agricultural extension officer, or the health worker in the provision of information. If the public library is located in a multicultural and multilingual area, this will have to be reflected in the nature of the collection. It will also be important for the staff in the public library between them, to speak all the community languages.

The following are the eight most common functions and activities carried out by public libraries through the world.

(a) Provision of materials for loan. This is perhaps the most basic function. Although in some countries, such as France, all items provided by some public libraries are for use in the library only. The types of material provided are books and other printed items, but many libraries also loan a range of non-print resources such as audio-cassettes, slides, toys, posters. The content and orientation of the materials varies according to the community being served, but also often the values of the librarians selecting the materials. Some libraries will provide thrillers and romances in great number; others will emphasise what they regard as "quality" items with for example, a "cultural" orientation, or an emphasis on potential to educate readers.

(b) Provision of a reference collection. Items for reference, or use in the library only, usually comprise part of the stock of public libraries. The emphasis is often on the informational content of these items and the rationale for keeping them in the library at all times, is that they should be available to the community to consult at will. Thus libraries actually have a reference collection containing such items as directories, encyclopaedias, dictionaries, atlases, handbooks, gazetteers, manuals and yearbooks. In some cases, information resources of this kind are rare or expensive, and this then becomes an additional reason for confining their use only in the library. This restriction helps preserve their physical condition.

(c) Provision of access to community information resources. Public libraries are often part of a network of libraries of all types - state, academic, national, special, etc. When a library does not hold an item required by a user it will either seek a copy on the user's behalf from another collection, or direct the user to the appropriate library. The user has, in theory at least, access to the totality of national resources through a locally based public library.

(d) Provision of programmes. Many libraries offer a series of recreational or cultural activities such as craft, programmes, concerts, films and storytelling. They might also provide information programmes such as local history lectures or teaching library skills.

(e) Delivery of materials. In cases where members of the community are unable to come to the library, the library will deliver materials to them. Books may be sent by mail, brought in a book-mobile to an isolated centre, or delivered to a housebound or institutionalised individual. The philosophy guiding this type of service is that the library is a service not simply a physical location.

(f) Provision of a reference service. A fundamental role of the librarian is to answer questions. Thus the user will be provided with answers to factual questions, either by asking in person or by phoning-in.

(g) Provision of advice. Public librarians, knowledgeable about the resources in their libraries, have always provided advice to users on what books or resources might meet the needs expressed by users. Thus the public librarian might advise the novel reader about a particular author, or the student about an authoritative work on Pacific fishes.

(h) Provision of support for community groups. This support is often given through provision of access to library facilities such as use of a room in the library by the senior citizen's group. It can also be given through provision of expertise from library staff such as in organising a seminar, or through housing the collection owned by a local historical society.

All public libraries do not always perform all of the eight functions listed above. Librarians and others in the community often need to decide just what are the most important functions for their public library. If there is a shortage of staff and money, then the library should concentrate on those functions which are most important to the community.

In some areas, the functions of the public library and the school library are combined and operate through one type of library. This combined library is known as a joint use library or a community library. The library is usually located in the school, and provides service to students, teachers and the community at large and combines the functions of the public library and the school library.

The special library is another type of library. Special libraries are located in commercial and business firms, industrial firms, law courts, government departments and agencies, statutory authorities, and research organisations. The term special has evolved over a period of time to describe a broad group of libraries with special characteristics as follows:

(a) special, due to the nature of the information resources which may be of one type such as film, video, sound tape or gramophone record;

(b) special, due to the subject areas covered such as forestry, law, agriculture or medicine;

(c) special, due to highly specific information needs of the library's users, such as research scientists, lawyers, public servants, doctors, medical technologists and nurses;

(d) special, due to the manner in which the collection of information resources is organised; perhaps by using a high degree of specifity in subject indexing, or a specialised classification scheme.

Often the special library has a small collection of information resources. To meet the information needs of their users, the special library will rely upon the resources of other libraries in the information network. The special library will borrow items from other libraries and use a process known as interlibrary loan. Sometimes instead of receiving the original item, the library may receive the item in a substitute form such as microform, or a photocopy of the original. To achieve this high degree of co-operation with other libraries, a special library needs to have a large collection of bibliographic (finding/locating) tools.

The school library or the school library resource centre is also part of the information network, and has an important contribution to make. The role and function of a school library depend to a large extent upon the education system of a country.

The way a country's educational system is organised and the various methods employed in teaching and learning will affect the school library. If an education system emphasises that all students in a given grade should be doing the same thing at the same time, the library will need to concentrate on collecting multiple copies of a few books. If, however, students are encouraged to engage in independent study, a different type of library collection will be needed.

Teachers who mostly lecture expect different services from the library than teachers who might involve the students in project work. If a school system has central standardized examinations for all students, libraries need to provide materials and services that will assist students in passing the examinations. What a school library does will be influenced by the way teaching and learning is organised in a country.

The purpose of a school library is to support the total school programme. This means that the purpose of a school library will be determined by the purpose of the education system in a particular country. School libraries must fit into the total education system of a country and cannot exist as isolated units. Libraries that attempt to function without taking into account, the aims and objectives of education as well as the methods and organisation of instruction in a particular country will never be considered really important or very useful.

In many countries the concept of school library service is a new idea. In the Pacific region, school libraries have not yet been established in all schools. Some schools have had school libraries for some time, but widespread school library service is a new concept to most Pacific countries. As in other parts of the world a country's education system needs to develop to a certain level before library service is seen as important. School library service in the Pacific, as in other regions of the world, was first seen as something that would benefit the academically talented students. It was not seen as something needed by all students, and was left to individual schools to decide as to the importance of a school library. If a school placed high priority on establishing and maintaining a school library, then one was developed. Schools did not have access to central school library consultant services or to financial assistance and few trained librarians were available to assist in the establishment of school libraries. Schools relied heavily on volunteers to establish and run the libraries, with perhaps a teacher assigned part-time to library duties.

As in other regions of the world, education authorities and individuals in the Pacific region began to be concerned about the lack of planned development of school libraries and the absence of qualified staff to co-ordinate school library development. In some Pacific countries such as Papua New Guinea, a school library service was established in the National Library to co-ordinate and plan the development of school library service. The establishment of training programs for school librarians is now being recognised as a priority for the Pacific region as it is for many other countries. Educators are realising that without trained school librarians the school library has limited effectiveness.

School library development can be viewed in four stages. School libraries in the Pacific just as in other parts of the world can be placed into one of the four stages of development:

> Stage one - Stage one school libraries are places where books are kept in some order; the books are not related to the school curriculum, but are mostly fiction providing recreational reading; these libraries are not considered part of the instructional programme of the school and are usually isolated from the rest of the school; these libraries are often considered as "extra curricular" activities and staffed by untrained volunteers or teachers assigned part-time to the library.
>
> Stage two - School libraries at this stage of development have more non-fiction books than stage one libraries; these books are used for supplementary reading by students but the school library is not closely related to the school's instructional programme; the staff in these libraries, usually teachers or library assistants working part-time, teach library skills to the students; this teaching

of library skills is isolated from the rest of the instructional programme of the school and is often viewed as not important by students and teachers; some stage two libraries include small collections of non-book resources to supplement the book collections.

Stage three - these school libraries have collections consisting of both book and non-book resources; most of the information resources in the school are housed as a central collection in the school library; this collection is organised in such a way that students and teachers can locate any particular item in the collection they need; library skills are taught in conjunction with a specific subject being studied, e.g. if students are studying the "Plant Life of Tonga", they would be given library skills lessons designed to show them how to locate information on the plants found in Tonga; school librarians with training in librarianship and education, are involved in providing reference service to students and teachers and finding material related to assignments and lessons.

Stage four - At this stage of development, school libraries play an active rather than a passive role in the school's instructional programme and is closely related to the philosophy and curriculum of a particular school; the school librarian is involved in curricular planning with the other members of the teaching staff and the resources of the school library are seen as essential aspects of the learning process; teachers and students expect to use the library and many lessons are designed around the library and its resources; students are also encouraged to use the library to pursue their own interests; the school librarian is viewed as a member of the school's teaching team; the staff member assigned to run the library is a qualified school librarian and works full time in the library.

School libraries in many parts of the world have passed through similar stages of development and have had to overcome many of the same problems. In the Pacific region, school libraries are now going through the various stages of development and attempting to solve many of the same problems that have faced librarians and educators in other regions.

The libraries of a country are one type of information agency offering information service to the people of that country. There are other types of information agencies in a country, and these in conjunction with libraries form what is called an information network.

The government funds the generation and distribution of information through its departments, agencies and statutory authorities; its national airline; its consulates, embassies and High Commissions in overseas countries; and through other means depending on government policy. These are known as information services, and each will have a clearly defined function, although sometimes these functions overlap, and also complement each other. In broad terms, government information services have the following aims:

(a) to inform people, both within the country and overseas about the country and its people;
(b) to inform people about the government and its policies;
(c) to inform people as to how they can improve their lifestyle;
(d) to inform people of their individual rights in that country.

The range of departments, agencies, etc. funded by the government is extensive. They will vary from country to country, and they will be called by a variety of names according to the manner in which the government has organised and structured its operations. In some countries, the department which is concerned with housing and people's welfare might be known as housing and welfare; in another country, it might be called social welfare, and in another, it might be social security.

Most of these departments, agencies, etc. funded by the government produce a range of information resources, in both print and non-print resource forms. One government agency which produces a wide range of information resources relating to its own country is the national airline. These resources range from posters to multi-media kits. They are designed as publicity material to attract people to fly with the airline, and distributed in countries to which the airline flies. These resources are usually of a high quality, accurate and the language used is at a simple and basic level, able to be comprehended by a majority of the population. The national airline often makes these resources available to schools in its own country. Another type of information agency offering promotional information is the tourist bureau. It may also be known as the tourist agency, the tourist commission or some other similar term. The tourist bureau produces a range of information about the geographic area in which it is operating. Often this is written in language at a simple and basic level and the information is factual and up-to-date. It is presented in many forms including brochures, pamphlets and maps. These information resources are most valuable to the teacher, the school librarian and the students.

Of particular relevance to teachers are the information services provided by the Ministry of Education. In most countries this Ministry issues reports and statistics on education, e.g. forward plans for educational development, preparation of students for work, new policies on curriculum and teaching methods. In addition to the general information resources issued by a Ministry of Education there will usually be a Curriculum Development Unit which will issue reports and other publications which relate general educational policy to the tasks of developing and designing school curriculum. Such a unit will usually issue teaching aids such as curriculum and lesson outlines, demonstration lessons, bibliographies for specific subjects and films or other non-print resources. The Ministry or the Curriculum Unit may have a library service which is available to all teaching staff, such as is the case in Tonga. Mention was made when discussing academic libraries of teachers' college libraries. Most countries have such libraries and their resources are made available to all teachers. Within the general information network of a country there is usually an education information sub-group which includes the Ministry of Education, the Curriculum Development Unit, the Teachers College Libraries and where there is a university, the School of Education or a Study Centre and the school libraries. In some countries this sub-group provides interlibrary co-operative services to teachers and in some countries the public library is closely linked with this sub-group. Such a group of libraries and/or information resources is available to teaching staff and should be exploited in supporting teaching and learning plans and methods.

Resource centres and cultural centres also have a role to play in the provision of information resources. The term resource centre is a very broad one, and can be interpreted in many ways. Sometimes the school library is called the school library resource centre, or the resource materials centre. A resource centre is like a library, used by many people, and often operated by people who hold no qualifications in librarianship. The main characteristics of a resource centre are:

(a) concern with a special subject area or theme;
(b) the development of a collection of information resources related to that special subject area or theme;

(c) a group of workers who normally have specialist knowledge or skills in relation to that special subject area or theme;

(d) the gathering of information, and production of information resources on the special subject area or theme;

(e) the dissemination of that information to the community.

In many countries, a special type of resource centre is a cultural centre. A cultural centre is concerned with the preservation of the culture of a country, and in some ways is like a museum. A cultural centre will have the five characteristics given above. However, it will be concerned with keeping alive the country's culture, and therefore have in its group of workers, people who have specialist knowledge and skills in craft, art, music, dance and other areas. These people will be concerned with demonstrating these skills, and also teaching other people these skills and techniques. Often these cultural centres attract a large number of visitors from overseas.

Museums and art galleries are also institutions concerned with information resources. They are usually funded by government, but sometimes by a private individual, an industrial firm, or a society such as a historical society. Art galleries are concerned with the preservation of artistic works created about a country, or by nationals of a country. These artistic works may be photographs, pictures, prints or artefacts such as pottery, carvings and weaving. Often an art gallery is closely linked with a museum. They are often administered by one corporate body, and often share the same building. Their functions are closely related, and do overlap. A museum may be national in its scope, or may be specifically concerned with a geographic region, or a town or a city, or a specific subject or theme such as geology, telecommunications or transport. A museum will have in its collection, a representative collection of real objects and specimens collected from within the community. These objects and specimens will relate to the museum's objectives and area of coverage. A museum will be concerned with the preservation of these objects and specimens for use by future generations. The museum will also have the five characteristics listed under resource centre.

Another information agency which forms part of the information network is the archives repository. This type of information agency may be an individual organisation in its own right. Sometimes archives will be part of a larger organisation such as a national library, a museum, a cultural centre or another specialist organisation perhaps unique to your country. The type of material to be collected and preserved will usually be of a unique or semi-pernament nature. Items such as letters, diaries, financial records and personal drawings fit into this category. So do photographs, sound tapes and video-recordings. In addition to records made by individual people, archives repositories are often given statutory responsibility to collect records of the government and its activities. These records are usually the files of information which the government creates as part of its administration. Archives repositories are also interested in collecting the records and papers of societies such as the Red Cross, the local family planning organisation, the nursing mothers association and sporting clubs. Archives repositories are also interested in obtaining the papers of business and industrial firms. The resources collected, organised, stored and made available for use are unique, and are often used for research. Special conditions apply to their use. They may have been transferred from their original format, if hand-written to typewritten, to a substitute form which is usually microform, either microfiche or microform. Archives repositories have a special place in the preservation of information about a country and its people.

SECTION 3

3.2 Using Library Resources

To access the information resources collected in all these libraries and information agencies the user must understand how libraries particularly, group, categorise and describe these resources and what aids are provided for the user to assist him/her in accessing the information.

In libraries the most common system of grouping or classification is by a system known as the Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme, devised by an American librarian which divides all knowledge into ten main classes with an allotted number as follows:

000 - General Works
100 - Philosophy, Psychology
200 - Religion
300 - Social Science
400 - Language
500 - Pure Science
600 - Applied Science
700 - Arts
800 - Literature
900 - Geography, Biography, History

Each of these ten main classes are again divided by ten, so the 500 Pure Science class becomes:

500 - General Science
510 - Mathematics
520 - Astronomy
530 - Physics
540 - Chemistry
550 - Geology, Earth Sciencer
560 - Prehistoric Plants and Animals

570 - Biology
580 - Botany
590 - Zoology

The same idea is applied again and again, so that even very small subject areas or topics can be given a specific number, e.g.

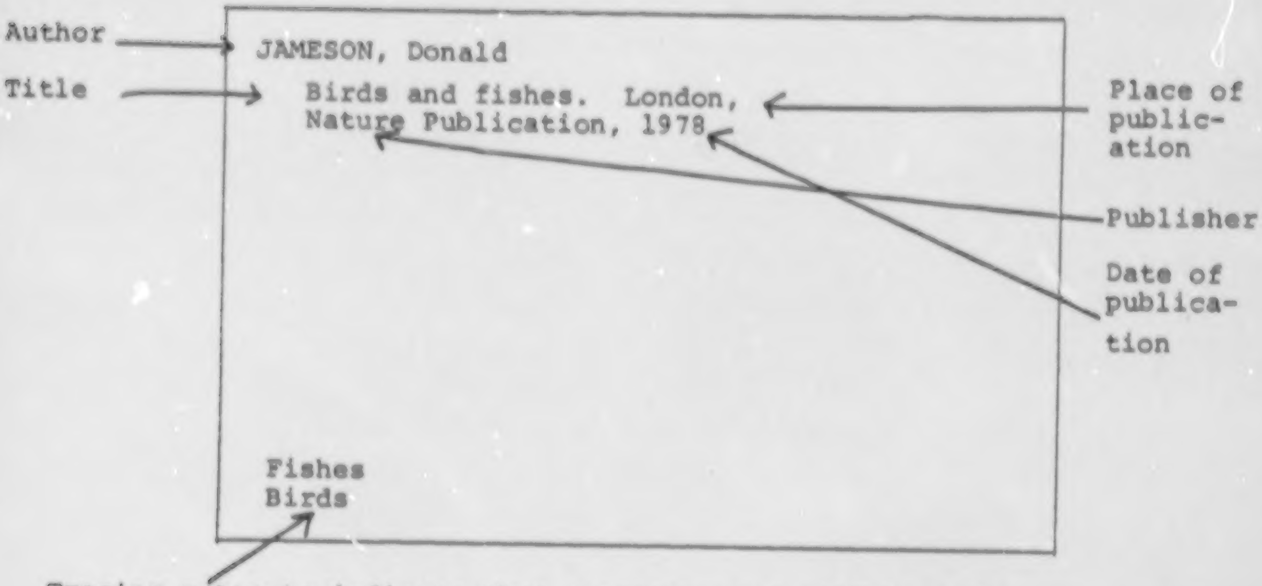
500 - Pure Science
590 - Zoology (animal life)
598 - Birds

Each book or information resource is classified by this scheme and the classification number is written on the resource and these resources are arranged on the library's shelves by the classification number.

As well as classifying each resource, the library describes each resource. This process is called cataloguing, and the information for this process is taken from the title page of the book and written on a card according to a set of universal cataloguing rules. Each information resource is catalogued under:

(i) Author or issuing body
(ii) Title
(iii) Subject

A typical author catalogue card is given on the following page.



JAMESON, Donald
Birds and fishes. London, Nature Publication, 1978

Fishes
Birds

Tracing notes to indicate that an entry card will be made under both subjects.

These catalogue cards then make up the library's catalogue filed alphabetically according to the universally accepted rules. The cards are usually kept in a special catalogue cabinet.

These two processes, classification and cataloguing are the keys to the library's information resources and are the means by which the user gains access to the information resources.

In most libraries you will find that different types of resources are grouped in different sections and can have different methods of arrangement.

Fiction books are usually arranged alphabetically by the author's name. In school and public libraries you will usually find at least two groups of fiction books, easy or picture books and junior novels. Each of these groups would be alphabetically arranged by author.

Non-fiction books are arranged by the classification scheme as indicated above.

Audiovisual resources are either interfiled with non-fiction books by the classification scheme or arranged separately because they usually require special types of storage facilities and special equipment such as a cassette player or a slide projector to use the resource. Further information on audiovisual resources and equipment is to be found in Section 4 of this Course.

Each library and information agency will have its own way of organising its resources. This individual approach is to help meet the needs of users, and to protect and preserve the resources. Most libraries use a system of open access, which allows users to examine resources to determine whether they are suitable to meet their information needs. Sometimes access will be restricted, as the resources are in great demand, or they may be too valuable, or they may be too fragile to have on open access. When this occurs, the term closed access is used. Sometimes all users are allowed access to the resources, but because a machine or a piece of hardware is needed to assist in retrieving the information, such as with 16mm film or videotape, those items are also placed on closed access. The reason for this is that the user may not have acquired the necessary skills to operate the hardware effectively, and therefore need assistance. This approach protects the information resource and the hardware from damage. Sometimes a resource has to be placed on display, but protected from being stolen, or damaged by people touching it, or damaged due to poor climatic control. This is why museums, art galleries and archives repositories are often air-conditioned where the temperature and humidity remain almost the same at all times. In some information agencies such as a cultural centre or a museum, when resources are placed on display, they may be protected by glass, a rope wall or some other method. Whatever the reason for using open, closed or limited access, the decision will have been made for a valid professional approach to information organisation, use and preservation. As you visit the information agencies in your local community and region, you will become aware of the different methods which are used in access to information resources.

Who makes these decisions? A team of people, some of whom have qualifications in their area of specialisation, who work together to make the appropriate decisions. The names or terms given to these people will vary from one information agency to another.

Libraries offer a number of information services for users:

- Answering ready reference enquiries such as "where is a particular building?" what is the date Australia was first settled?
- Advising users on what to read, such as a book on hurricanes suitable for a young child, or a novel for an older person.
- Providing a list of relevant information resources for a particular need such as the design of a new school course on plant life.

You need to check what services each type of library supplies and whether the services are for all users or only for those who work for the institution which provides the library service e.g. a government department information service or a university library. If you are uncertain ask the library staff of the institution concerned or discuss it with your school librarian. Some libraries and information agencies issue printed lists or catalogues of their information resources collections and you can consult these to see if the particular information you want is in that institution.

Many libraries provide services of inter-library loan, where libraries in a group, mutually agree to provide their information resources on loan to another library on request. The sub-group of education libraries mentioned before may provide inter-library loan services as well as services in person to anyone who comes to the libraries concerned. Again check with the library staff about such inter-library loan services.

SECTION 3

3.3 School Library Services for Teachers

The staff working in a school library usually provide many services to teachers, which help the teacher to work more effectively and achieve the educational objectives of the school. The nature and extent of the services provided will differ from school to school. The reasons for this differing pattern may relate to:

(1) the size of the school and the number of students enrolled;
(2) the physical design, layout and amount of space in the school library;
(3) the number of items in the school library collection;
(4) the number of the staff employed in the school library;
(5) the amount of time each staff member works in the school library each day when the school is in session.

Some of the services will be provided by the school librarian, and some by the school library assistant. Sometimes they will work together on a particular service, but whether they are working together or individually, it is the total service to the school's teachers and students which is important. These services may be to help the teacher further develop his/her knowledge in education or some other subject area. However, the most frequently provided services to teachers relate to providing information resources to support classroom teaching.

One service to teachers is information about new information resources added to the school library collection and can include:

(1) personal contact, either by a face-to-face communication, by telephone, or some form of written communication, which will inform the teacher that an item he/she requested for purchase for the school library collection is now available for use. Sometimes the library staff will inform a teacher that a new item, or items, have been added to the school library which the teacher might be interested in using in teaching. These items may have been selected by the school librarian, another teacher or the school principal.

(2) distribution of a published list describing the new information resources which have been added to the school library collection over a period of time, usually distributed on a regular time basis such as each month.

(3) display of new information resources in a central location which is used by all teachers in the school. The location may be the school principal's office, the lunch room, the common room, or a special part of the school library.

Some school libraries offer a specialised service to teachers in relation to new issues of periodicals which arrive at the school library. Most school libraries will receive a number of periodicals on a regular basis. Some of the periodicals will be purchased, and some will be free and unsolicited. As you are aware each issue of a periodical contains a number of articles or chapters, all written by a number of people.

The library often indicates to teachers relevant articles in new issues of periodicals. This can be done by distributing the contents page of each issue of a periodical. This is a common practice in libraries and requires a photocopying process or retyping the contents page for distribution.

The loan of information resources to teachers for use in the classroom is another service provided by the school library staff to the teacher. The resources may be:

(a) held in the school library;
(b) located in another library or information agency, and which must be borrowed through the interlibrary loan network mentioned in the previous section of this Course.

The teacher may be able to borrow a large number of information resources for use in the classroom for a fixed period of time. It may be for one teaching period, one morning, a day, a week or longer. The resources are usually on a particular theme or topic, and jointly chosen from the collection by the school librarian and the teacher. The way in which they are used in the classroom will depend on the teacher and the aims/objectives of his teaching programme. The length of time the resources are in the classroom will depend on the teacher's need and requests for the same items by other teachers and students.

As you are aware, the school library will not have all the information resources that a teacher may wish to use in teaching. The school library staff will try to borrow the requested item from another library or information agency. Often they will be the more expensive items to purchase such as 16 mm films, multi-media kits, videotapes, dioramas and real objects. They will be borrowed for a specific period of time, and returned when finished with by the teacher and the students. The resources may come from another library, the museum, the art gallery, a government department, a film resource centre, or some other institutional resources. Some teachers may approach another library or information agency on an individual basis. However, if each teacher was to make individual contact with an individual library or information agency, each time an information resource was needed from an external source, then much time and effort is wasted and duplicated. It is better for the school library staff to co-ordinate the borrowing from external sources, as they will have the relevant bibliographic tools, the professional knowledge and expertise, and are already part of the information network.

The school librarian may also provide some of the following services to teachers:

- Facilities such as space and equipment to produce instructional resources, e.g. transparencies or tapes.
- Demonstration of the use and operation of audio-visual equipment.
- Special skills lessons for classes in relation to the use of resources or finding information.
- Preparation of booklists or bibliographies.
- Professional collection of resources about teaching methods and subject curriculum development.

Another service which the school librarian can offer to the teacher is assistance in course planning, setting of assignments, and curriculum development. Remember that if the school librarian has professional qualifications in both teaching and librarianship, this dual qualification makes him/her a special person in the school environment, with detailed knowledge of the curriculum being used in the school, and a thorough knowledge of the information resources available to support that curriculum.

Any school will be constantly reviewing its curriculum, and in most cases, attempting to relate its teaching to the local environment. In this constant approach to curriculum development, it is necessary to be aware of the range of information resources which are available and which can be used to support curriculum development within a school. As the school librarian usually has dual qualifications, he/she should be involved in any curriculum development activity associated with the school. When a school is involved in the development of its own curriculum, it is important to know the total range of resources which may be available for use in the curriculum. The range of resources should include relevant print and non-print resources, and other people and organisations in the community who can assist in achieving the aims and objectives of the curriculum. The school librarian should be aware of the range of these resources, and if not through personal knowledge, have the professional expertise to identify relevant resources. The school librarian should then be able to purchase or borrow these resources for use in the school. He/she will also be able to give information about local people and organisations who may be able to assist in curriculum development. Their involvement may be as:

(1) demonstrators of a particular skill such as basket making or fishnet weaving;
(2) teachers who are involved due to their expertise and respect in the community, e.g. a highly respected boat builder;
(3) teachers who can pass on their special local language to the students;
(4) guest speakers who can pass on specialist knowledge, due to their position in the community, or their experience overseas.

Another service which the school librarian should offer to teachers newly appointed to the school is an induction programme about the school library and its services. This should help the school librarian develop a good professional working relationship with all teachers. Sometimes a new teacher may have come from another school where the level and quality of the school library was more developed, and the newly appointed teacher may have some good suggestions to make to the school community about improving the school library. One area which is often developed in this way is the decision for the school to produce its own information resources to support its own curriculum development work. The school librarian should be able to participate effectively in the design and production of school based information resources. The participation is vital, as the school librarian may be the only person who has the skills to operate, or supervise staff who can operate and use the hardware in the production process.

The school librarian has a very important role in helping teachers to use and integrate information resources as part of their teaching.

That role should:

(1) bring to the attention of teachers, the range of information resources held in the school library;
(2) bring to the attention of teachers and students, the new items added to the school library's collection;
(3) advise the school staff of information resources available from other libraries and information agencies;
(4) advise the school staff of persons in the community and whose specialist expertise the school can use.
(5) participate in the design of, and supervise the production of school based information resources.

The teacher has a very important role in helping the school librarian by:

bringing to the attention of the school librarian recommended titles for purchase;

- bringing to the attention of the school librarian out-of-date resources in the library's collection;
- assisting the school librarian in weeding the library's collection;
- notifying the school librarian of projects, assignments, tests which require the use of the library, in sufficient time for the school librarian to make any special arrangements so that all students have equal access to the limited information resources available;
- consulting the school librarian about relevant resources for lesson preparation;
- seeking the librarian's assistance in teaching students information seeking skills.

The teacher plays a key role in linking the school library to the curriculum, to classroom teaching and to the various activities which take place in schools.

SECTION 4 - THE TEACHER LOCATES INFORMATION

Contents

4.1 Locating Information About Information Sources

4.2 Locating Information in Print Resources

4.3 Locating Information in Non-print Resources

4.4 Using Audio-visual Equipment

SECTION 4

4.1 Locating Information About Information Sources

To access information skills in libraries, certain skills are required:

(a) ability to use bibliographic control mechanisms, e.g. library catalogues, to identify relevant information resources held in libraries;
(b) ability to use published indexes, abstracts, lists, and catalogues to access information resources held in libraries, and in other relevant information agencies.

To become competent in these skills we need to be also competent in:

(a) numeracy;
(b) alphabetisation;
(c) bibliographic description.

Teachers in co-operation with the school librarian need to organise a set of relevant structured learning experiences for students to develop information skills. These learning experiences need to demonstrate that the informatic identified and located has a high degree of relevance to a particular problem for the students. Once students have a good success rate in accessing information resources, the benefits of the structured learning experience programme will become apparent. The teaching of these information skills can be hard, and many of the students will require a lot of personal assistance to achieve the required degree of competency.

Students need to develop, extend and reinforce their skills in reading, viewing and listening and the prime responsibility rests with the teacher but the school librarian can be supportive in this area, where much of the skills development can be done on a small group or an individual basis as the need arises, particularly in the area of extension and reinforcement. The school librarian can assist teachers by telling stories, listening to students read aloud and providing interesting reading resources to encourage students to read.

A similar situation exists with viewing and listening skills. The classroom teacher is responsible for their development, but the school librarian can be involved in the extension and reinforcement stages. Sometimes the classroom teacher and the school librarian work together to design a programme aimed at developing viewing and listening skills using the information resources held in the school library.

You will be aware that not every member of the community has the skills to read and write. For this reason, the oral tradition in many countries is more relevant and important than printed information resources such as books and periodicals. To this extent, some people will be able to communicate better through the spoken word, through the pictorial approach, or even sign language.

Students should be introduced to the process of communication early in their education. Their understanding of the communication process can be further extended and developed as the student progresses through his/her school career. It is important that students become highly competent in their understanding of the characteristics of the recorded formats in which information is stored, and that they can critically evaluate each in relation to answering their questions and problems. School students must be able to decide which is the most appropriate resource to meet their information needs. Teaching these skills needs to be a co-ordinated and combined effort by both the classroom teacher and the school librarian.

Selection, Evaluation, Discrimination and Interpretation of Information

The selection of information can only be undertaken after a student has undergone the process of problem formation, which was mentioned in the first unit of this Course.

The evaluation of the worth of an information resource can be a subjective decision based on an individual's point of view or frame of reference. An individual's point of view can be moral, religious, political, national or some other, and this can influence their evaluation of an information resource which does not agree with their point of view. Often one of the school's aims is teaching the concept of tolerance and as such the development of an understanding of objectivity in using information resources should be part of the school curriculum. A student's personal preference for a particular format in an information resource, e.g. highly illustrated text or easy words can also lead to a subjective judgement being given. Other areas which need to be considered include:

(a) level and clarity of written or verbal expression used to express the intellectual content of the information resource;

(b) subject level of the intellectual content in relation to the comprehension of the content;

(c) accuracy of the information contained in an information resource;

(d) time scale and the currency of the information included in the information resource;

(e) supporting statements such as illustrations in a book, or the script for a tape-slide sequence;

(f) authority of the person or persons responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of an information resource.

Once a student has developed an accepted level or degree of competency in assessing an information resource, it is important that those competencies be applied to a range of information resurces on the same topic or subject. Students must learn to discriminate whilst using a range of information resources, and the development of this approach should be part of the school curriculum.

The interpretation of the content of an information resource is an ability which every school student should develop. In addition to discriminating when using an information resource, students must learn to interpret information. Often this approach is only thoroughly developed in the later years of secondary school, even though the approach has been introduced much earlier in the student's education. The areas of attempting to interpret information relate to many types of information resource. These include maps, statistics and reports. It is necessary that the skills be developed in relation to subject content in areas such as geography, environmental studies, mathematics and science. It is also important that students question the process of information collection, presentation and analysis in their own information use. You may consider these skills to be those of people working in universities and those who undertake research, but every person in a community needs to be able to interpret information, whether it be:

(a) articles in a newspaper;
(b) advertising about a product in a periodical or magazine;
(c) advertising over radio broadcast, or a television screening;
(d) a tourist brochure;
(e) a social welfare document, outlining a person's rights and entitlements.

They must be able to question the manner in which the information has been collected, organised and presented. They must also be able to accept or reject that information, and give their reasons for the acceptance or the rejection of that information.

Repackaging of Information

Students need to learn how to present information to their peers, teachers and parents. This comes as a result of using their skills in the selection, evaluation, discrimination and interpretation of information. When presenting assignments or projects, students will have used a number of information resources, and have had to assimilate ideas and concepts. In this packaging of information, students should be encouraged to use a variety of communication techniques, including the written word, the pictorial approach, diagrams, maps, slides, sound, film, video, etc.

Students should be taught how to present information using these techniques, and encouraged to present their assignment work in a variety of formats. Suitable approaches may be a set of drawings accompanied by a page of text; a tape-slide sequence or maybe a videotape.

Using Their Own Information Files

As part of their daily lives, and particularly in relation to their school studies, students gather, and are presented with, a range of information. Some of this may be handouts compiled and distributed by teachers; some of it may be print resources obtained free or purchased by students, or perhaps photocopies of resources; and much of it may be notes which students have made themselves. Students must learn the skills of organising their own information in order to maximise their efforts in information gathering.

These skills to be taught include:

(a) organisation of information in a logical manner;
(b) process of organisation using alphabetical sequences and classified sequences, and relevant strategies which can be used;

(c) development of adequate note taking styles;

(d) development of adequate referencing styles, in order that information resources can be adequately identified by teachers;

(e) development of the compilation of information resource lists or bibliography styles.

Many of these skills can be introduced in the primary school, but are best extended, and further developed in the secondary school. You will have to decide how and when the teaching of the skills is to be introduced. You, in conjunction, with the school librarian and the school principal, will have to decide upon a total school based programme for the teaching of all these areas relating to information skills.

Many people advocate an information skills development strategy known as a K-12 approach, with K meaning the pre-school period and 1-12 being the twelve grades a student passes, if he/she satisfactorily completes the full primary/secondary schooling. You will know in your own country just how far students progress in this K-12 approach. You will then realise that for the education system of which you are a part, the school principal, the teachers and the school librarian will need to develop their own programme of information skills to meet the individual needs and differences of the students.

This is one programme which you should consider, and possibly modify to meet the needs of your school.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
K-2	1 Use picture clues to aid in understanding information resources. 2 Identify main idea or concept in an information resource. 3 Identify and explain sequence of events.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
3	4 Find specific information by using pictorial material and photographs.
	5 Interpret simple pictorial maps, graphs, and diagrams.
	6 Skim printed information resources to find a word, name, date, phrase, sentence, idea, usually in order to answer a question and solve a problem.
4	7 Use the table of contents of an information resource, particularly a book or an issue of a periodical to locate information.
	8 Use a specified information resource to locate a specific fact.
	9 Summarise, and discuss verbally, simple information.
	10 Use the index of an information resource to locate information.
	11 Locate words in a dictionary, and explain nature of information given.
	12 Identify key words and phrases in a reference source suitable for use by students.
5-6	13 Use encyclopaedias, atlases, dictionaries suitable for students with a higher degree of effectiveness.
	14 Use telephone directories with a limited degree of success.
	15 Write a simple outline to help solve an information or personal problem.
	16 Prepare a simple information resource list of three or more items.
	17 Take notes from appropriate information resources, particularly those of a printed nature.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
7-8	18 Summarise content of information resources in student's own style of expression.
	19 Use bibliographies, periodical indexes, and other listings to assist in locating information.
	20 Use skim reading techniques to gain an overview of an information resource.
	21 Compile an information resource list of a limited number of items following a specified style.
	22 Take notes using a prescribed pattern or procedures.
	23 Outline information in a topic or sentence pattern in a structured and logical sequence.
	24 Identify key points in content of an information resource.
9-12	25 Compare figures in maps, graphs, statistical tables, etc. to make generalisations to infer and to draw conclusions.
	26 Use effectively the preface, chapter headings, indexes and cross references in an information resource particularly in relation to the selection and discrimination process.
	27 Evaluate information resources for accuracy and appropriateness.
	28 Recognise digressions from the main ideas in an information resource.
	29 Justify the selection of relevant information to meet an expressed need from specified content of specific information resources.
	30 Develop skim reading techniques to a high degree of competency.
	31 Distinguish between factual and emotional writing; and fact and opinion.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
9-12 Cont'd	32 Identify and explain unsubstantiated statements in information resources.
	33 Use formal outlining techniques to organise information gathered to assist in recall.

This is only one suggested scheme, which is more oriented to printed resources. You will need to decide how relevant this scheme is to your own situation. and modify it to meet the curriculum as taught in your school, and as recommended by the relevant education authority. You will also have to decide how to expand such a scheme to include skills in relation to non-print resources. A strategy to develop all the relevant information skills will be developed at a school based level, and therefore the pattern should differ from school to school, and sometimes from education system to education system.

SECTION 4

4.2 Locating Information in Print Resources

(i) Introduction

The school library will usually have the greater part of its information resources in print form. Whether that print resource be a book, a pamphlet, a government report, or a church publication, it is important that the potential user can gain access to the intellectual and artistic content of the print resource. To help the user gain access to the relevant information, each one of the print resources may have up to five parts:

(a) contents list;
(b) index;
(c) appendices;
(d) glossary;
(e) bibliography.

You may find other parts such as a list of illustrations, and list of maps and charts.

The contents page will appear as part of the preliminary pages in a book, or as the first page of an issue of a periodical. The contents list will list the chapters of the book, the number of each chapter and the page on which each chapter begins. This allows a potential user to evaluate the book, and determine whether it may assist in meeting his/her information needs. The nature of the contents list will vary according to the nature of the print resource. For example, in a collection of short stories, the contents list will list each short story by author and title, and give the page number on which each short story begins. In an issue of a periodical, the various articles and authors where identified, will be given in page order, and identify the page number where the article begins. Without a contents list, the user would have much difficulty in identifying what was included in the work, and how the intellectual content has been broadly organised.

To help the user become more aware of the exact nature of the intellectual content in print resources, particularly books, most authors will include an index. The index is usually located at the end of the book or government report. The index is an alphabetical list of names of places, names of people, subjects, topics covered in the book, and indication of where that person, subject, etc. is mentioned in the book or report. The index is far more specific than contents list. The index should include a page number for each time a person, place, subject, etc., is mentioned in the book. The compilation of the index to a book is a specialised task. It is usually not compiled by the person or people responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the book. The compilation is undertaken by a specialist who has developed specialised skills and competencies in compiling indexes. This person is known as an indexer. One of the special skills that an indexer has, is to make all the entries consistent, both in form of entry heading and the nature of the information included. Sometimes when you look in an index, the entry heading which you have chosen, may not be listed there. You may have to think of a similar term, and check under that heading. You may be successful, but if not you will have to keep thinking of alternative headings which the indexer may have used. Sometimes the indexer will have anticipated some of these alternative terms, and made what are known as see references. This means you are referred from a rejected heading to the accepted heading which has been used. One example of this would be:

Presidents, *see* Heads of state, etc.

When you have checked under Heads of state, etc., you are given references to that heading, and aspects of the heading.

The term appendices is one which applies to some print information resources. They are a type of information listing included in a print resource, providing additional information to support and expand upon what is the main part of the work. Examples of what may be included in the appendices are:

(a) a copy of the questionnaire used to gather information upon which the book or report is based;
(b) a full set of the statistics used, and from which extracts have been used in the book or the report;
(c) additional information which supports a particular point of view expressed in the body of the book or report;
(d) the full text of a document from which there has been extensive quoting;
(e) a rationale for a particular approach or strategy used in the book or report.

Sometimes a bibliography may be given. This may be included as an appendix, and often as a separate section. The bibliography will be a list of information resources which the people responsible for the intellectual and artistic content have used in the creation of the publication. Sometimes the bibliography will have an annotation for each item, and sometimes there will be none. The bibliography may be organised on a classified basis, e.g. by topic or by date of publication, or in alphabetical order. The purpose of the bibliography is to:

(a) inform users of the book of the range and quality of information resources used in writing the book;

(b) suggest other information resources which the user may want to examine and use.

A glossary may be included in a book or some other print information resource. This may be included as an appendix, and sometimes as a separate section. A glossary is a special list of difficult and technical words or terms in relation to the content of the book. The words or terms will have been used constantly throughout the text. Instead of defining at each point of use, each word or term is listed in the glossary. Then a definition, explanation or interpretation of the word or term is given. The words and terms are usually given in alphabetical order. The purpose of the glossary is to make sure that the user clearly understands the meaning and interpretation of words and terms used in the body of the text.

(ii) Types of Reference Resources

Information resources tend to be finite, in that they have a physical presence and entity which includes a beginning and an end. You may have become used to coping with an information resource in its entirety in that:

1. You usually read a book from beginning to end, or cover to cover;
2. You view a film from beginning to end, irrespective of its length;
3. You listen to a sound tape cassette in its entirety.

There is nothing wrong with this approach, as these information resources have been written and designed to be used in this manner.

There is a group or type of information resources designed not to be read, viewed or listened to in their entirety. They have been designed for the user to find an answer or answers to a specific question or questions. Mostly this type of information resource is published in print form and not in film or sound form. These information resources are usually called reference works, and in a library, are usually grouped together to form a reference collection.

These reference resources can be grouped according to their use as follows:

1. The resource gives the answer to the question, e.g. "what is the height of Mount Everest?". Reference resources included in this group are:
    - dictionaries
    - encyclopaedias
    - directories
    - handbooks
    - manuals
    - yearbooks
    - atlases.

2. The resource directs the user to where the information may be found, e.g. an index which lists an article on Mount Everest. In this case, the person searching for the information has to use a second source of information. Reference resources included in this group are:
    - indexes to periodicals
    - bibliographies

When a number of these resources are part of the library collection they are usually shelved together and referred to as the "reference collection".

1. (a) Dictionaries

Definition

A dictionary is a collection of words, alphabetically arranged. In relation to each word listed, each entry generally gives:

. spelling
. meaning
. pronunciation
. syllabication (how the word is divided into syllables)

Dictionaries often include synonyms (equivalent words); quotations to illustrate use of the word in different contexts; place names; abbreviations; slang words.

Use

A dictionary may be used to find out:

. how to spell a word;
. how to pronounce a word;
. an alternative but similar word (synonym)
. the meaning of a word in general
. the meaning of a word in a subject context.

An important use of a dictionary is to clarify terms before proceeding to carry out a search for information.

Further uses of dictionaries are determined by the scope and characteristics of the types of dictionary available.

Major Types:

General language dictionaries

A general language dictionary gives information about frequently used words in a particular language. The scope varies from comprehensive to abridged, containing a selection of words only (these are often called "college", "desk" or "concise" dictionaries).

Some frequently used dictionaries of the English language are:

Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English, 6th ed., Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1976.

Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary. Rev. ed., Melbourne, Lothian, 1977.

Dictionaries of Pacific languages include:

Illustrated Dictionaries

This type of dictionary is particularly useful for new readers and children. In addition to the basic information found in general dictionaires, it includes illustrations of items which are difficult to describe in words.

The New Oxford Illustrated Dictionary. Vol. 1-2, Melbourne, Oxford University Press, 1978.

Scarry, R. Picture Dictionary, London, Collins, 1978.

Foreign Language Dictionaries

This type of dictionary gives the meaning of foreign language words in a language understood by the reader. It also allows the reader to find the foreign-language equivalent of a word in the language being used by the reader.

For the English language, the Harrap Publishing Company has published many dictionaries, for example:

Harrap's New Standard French and English Dictionary. Vols. 1-2, London, Harrap, 1972.

Some Pacific language/English language dictionaries are:

Hawaiian Dictionary: Hawaiian-English, English-Hawaiian, by M.K. Pakui and S.H. Elbert. Honolulu, University of Hawaii Press, 1971.

The Jacaranda Dictionary and Grammar of Melanesian Pidgin, by F. Mihalic, Milton, Queensland, Jacaranda, 1971.

Samoan Dictionary: Samoan-English, English-Samoan, by G.B. Milner, London, Oxford University Press, 1966.

Subject Dictionaries

Certain subjects such as science, music, library science, politics, have their own special words. These words are often called "jargon" and to a person unfamiliar with a subject are difficult to understand. There are special dictionaries to help in these situations. Sometimes the dictionary includes detail on the meaning of a term, in addition to a definition, therefore this type of dictionary can be useful for answering quick-reference enquiries on a subject.

Some examples:

Dictionary of Literature in the English Language, by R. Myers, Oxford, Pergamon, 1970.

Dictionary of Computers, 2nd ed., Hamondsword, Penguin, 1977.

1. (b) Encyclopaedias

Definition

An encyclopaedia is a reference work which contains condensed articles on many subjects. The articles are usually written by specialists and are generally not intended for persons with a detailed knowledge of a specific topic. Most encyclopaedias come in several volumes.

Use

An encyclopaedia is generally used to give:

- general background on a subject for a non-specialist;
- brief factual answers to questions beginning who? what? where? when? how?;
- guidance to further sources of information. Encyclopaedias usually include suggestions for further reading on a topic.

Encyclopaedias are among the first reference books consulted in a search for information on a topic as they generally have an index to contents. The usual arrangement for an encyclopaedia is alphabetical.

Major Types

General Adult Encyclopaedias

General adult encyclopaedias attempt to cover the major facets of knowledge in the world. This is a difficult task in view of the amount of knowledge and the rate at which it is changing. These encyclopaedias are to some extent selective in their coverage, and keep up-to-date by issuing revised editions or in some cases an annual volume with new information. Some publishers have produced encyclopaedias in weekly instalments which are issued over a period and sold through newsagencies.

Examples of general encyclopaedias:

World Book Encyclopaedia, Vol. 1-24, Chicago, World Book, 1980.

New Encyclopedia Brittanica, 15th ed., Vol. 1-30, Chicago, Encyclopedia Brittanica, 1975.

Columbia Encyclopedia, 3rd ed., 1 Vol., New York, Columbia University Press, 1963.

General Encyclopaedias for Children

These are compiled on the same principle as general adult encyclopaedias, but are written at a level more suitable for children. They generally contain many illustrations.

Examples:

Children's Brittanica, Vol. 1-20, London, Encyclopedia Brittanica International.

Encyclopedia International, Vol. 1-20, New York, Grollier, 1963.

Subject Encyclopaedias

Because of the difficulties of containing all aspects of knowledge in one reference work, encyclopaedias which cover only one subject area are often published. This type of encyclopaedia may have one or many volumes. In most respects, the general encyclopaedia and the subject encyclopaedia are similar in approach with the subject encyclopaedia being more specific and usually written for the specialist.

Examples:

Encyclopedia of Education, Vol. 1-10, New York, Macmillan, 1971.

Encyclopedia of How it Works, edited by D. Clarke, New York, A & W, 1971.

McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology: an International Reference Work. 4th ed., Vol. 1-15, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1977.

Encyclopedia of Papua and New Guinea, Vol. 1-3, Melbourne, Melbourne University Press, 1972.

1. (c) Directories

Definition

A directory is a list of persons or organisations arranged systematically, usually in alphabetical or classified order. Details given for individuals can include addresses and telephone numbers and for organisations, the address, functions, and office-holders are usually given.

Use

Directories are used most frequently for:
- address and telephone numbers of individuals and organisations;
- full name of an organisation or individual;
- description of a product manufactured by a company;
- biographical information on individuals;
- information on community services available in a specific location.

Major Types

Organisational Directories

This type of directory may be compiled on any one of the following basis:
- local directories, e.g. telephone directory; list of local clubs and societies in a town; list of schools;
- government directory, e.g. guide to the functions and officers names of various government departments;
- trade directory, e.g. list of manufacturers; a directory of companies;

Sometimes a directory will combine information in all three categories listed above.

Examples of directories:

a. the telephone directory of a country, town or other geographical area.

b. *Fiji Library Directory; edited and compiled by J. Waqa. Suva, Fiji Library Association, 1981.*

Local Service Directory

In recent years this type of directory has become more common, often aiming to provide information on a limited geographical area such as a region. Some of these directories list services available to a limited group, e.g. the disabled. The information these directories contain relates to the available community services provided by various organisations, including voluntary organisations.

Characteristics include:

- often compiled and produced by local groups from information collected by the groups themselves;
- often distributed free-of-charge;
- not always published in a formal sense;
- contains names, addresses, opening hours, services offered, contact person's names, groups eligible to use service;
- rarely regularly revised;
- emphasises information for "everyday" problems rather than subject related problems.

This is a valuable type of resource. In the absence of a suitable directory for a particular community, it is possible for a library to develop a directory itself. Ways to compile a local service directory are described later in this Course at the end of this Section.

Examples of some formally published directories:

Directory of Community Welfare Services, Vol. 1-2, (looseleaf), Sydney, Council of Social Service of New South Wales.

Directory of Services for Disabled People, Canberra, AGPS, 1977.

Biographical Directories

These directories give information on the lives of individuals either living or dead. Occasionally photographs are included. The scope of the directories varies, e.g.

- general international directories list well-known people in all countries and major occupations;
- national directories are confined to persons of one country, e.g. Australia;
- occupational directories give information on persons in a particular occupation, e.g. theatre, medicine, science.

Example:

McGraw-Hill Encyclopaedia of World Biography, 12 Vols., New York, McGraw-Hill.

1. (d) Handbooks and Manuals

Definition

A handbook or manual serves as a quick reference source in a field of knowledge. It generally provides "how-to-do it" information, and frequently needed information. The information is generally found in other sources, but not in such a condensed form. In many ways, they are like subject encyclopaedias.

Use

Handbooks and manuals contain:

. brief factual information on a topic;

. brief overview of the stage of development in a particular field;

. "how-to-do it" information.

Examples:

Reader's Digest How To Do-It-Yourself Manual, Sydney, Reader's Digest Services.

Secretary's Handbook: a Manual of Correct Usage, 9th ed., New York, Macmillan, 1969.

1. (e) Yearbooks and Almanacs

Definition

A yearbook records activities and developments, generally over a one year period, in a country, or a subject, or some specialised area. It usually contains information and statistics relevant only to the period covered. An almanac is similar to a yearbook but includes retrospective and historical material and aims to give brief details and facts on the subject or area. The information found in almanacs is often found in other sources but not in such condensed form.

Uses

Almanacs and yearbooks are consulted to obtain:

. briefly stated facts and statistics;

. names and addresses of organisations and people;

. overview of developments in a particular field, e.g. science, politics;

. an up-date on information contained in encyclopaedias.

Some examples are:

Guinness Book of Records, London, Guinness Superlatives, annual.

Pacific Islands Year Book, Sydney, Pacific Publications, irregular.

World Almanac and Book of Facts, New York, Doubleday, annual.

Whittaker's Almanac, London, Whittaker, annual.

Stateman's Yearbook: statistical and historical annual of the states of the world.

In addition to the yearbooks which appear as bound volumes on an annual basis, some are issued in loose-leaf form weekly and are filed by the library staff in a folder supplied by the publishers. The information is similar in coverage to yearbooks and almanacs, but due to the loose-leaf publication are more up-to-date when they appear. Examples are:

Facts on File: weekly world news digest with cumulative index. New York, Facts on File.

Keesing's Contemporary Archives: weekly record of important world events. London, Keesing's.

1. (f) Geographical Reference Resources

Definition

Geographical reference resources comprise the special information resources needed to answer questions in geography. These resources include maps, atlases, gazetteers and guidebooks.

Use

The types of questions for which geographical reference resources are used include:

- what is the capital of Vanuatu?
- through what Pacific Islands does the Equator run?
- what historical buildings should I see when I visit Auckland?

Major Types

Maps and Atlases

A map is a flat representation of features on the surface of the earth. An atlas is a collection of maps bound together in a book.

The information contained in these resources include:

. physical features such as mountains, valleys;

. political boundaries, e.g. states of the United States, boundaries of a town;

. thematic, e.g. where taro crops are grown in the world, where uranium is mined;

An example of an atlas is:

New Penguin World Atlas; edited by P. Hall, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1979.

Gazetteers

A gazetteer is a geographical dictionary which includes names of towns, villages, rivers and other geographical features. It often includes information on population, longitude and latitude. Most atlases include a gazetteer which also acts as an index to the maps in the atlas.

An example of a gazetteer not published as part of an atlas is:

Columbia Lippincott Gazetteer of the World, New York, Columbia University Press, 1952.

Guidebooks

A guidebook is intended to present useful information for the traveller. These works usually include brief overview information on a country such as geographical and historical facts, hotels, museums, local transportation.

Often maps and gazetteers are included. In addition to published guidebooks, there is a wealth of this type of information available as brochures and pamphlets for tourists. A great deal of effort goes into compiling these brochures, and they are usually available free from the various tourist offices and from national airline companies such as Malaysian Airlines.

The most well known and comprehensive guidebooks which cover many countries of the world are known as:

. Michelin
. Fodor
. Baedeker
. Blue Guides (Muirhead)

2. (a) Indexes to Periodicals and Newspapers

Definition

An index to periodicals or newspapers is a systematic guide to the contents of these resources. When an index to periodicals or newspapers is published on a regular and continuing basis, it is referred to as an "indexing service". This type of index is a form of bibliography, based on the format of the materials indexed. (It should, however, be distinguished from bibliographies which are lists of titles of periodicals only).

Uses

An index or indexing service is used most frequently:

. to trace periodical or newspaper articles on a subject;

- to up-date the information contained in other reference resources by tracing the most recently published articles on a subject;
- to check a reference to a given article to verify bibliographical details.

Major Types

As in the case of bibliographies, the basis on which indexes to periodicals and newspapers are compiled varies.

Indexes to a Single Periodical or Newspaper

Individual periodicals usually include an index to each volume as it is compiled. Some publishers produce this index or the index to a number of volumes, as a separate work, e.g. *National Geographic Magazine Cumulative Index*.

Indexes to Several General Interest Periodicals

In these indexes, the contents of many general interest periodicals are listed systematically. The subject coverage is usually broad.

Examples are:

Pinpointer: a current subject guide to popular periodicals. Adelaide, Libraries Board of South Australia.

Bibliography of Periodical Articles Relating to the South Pacific. Suva, University of the South Pacific.

Subject Indexes

Subject indexes give an in-depth coverage of a particular field such as science or education. These periodical indexes often include references to the contents of resources in other formats such as books and newspapers.

An example is:

Australian Education Index. Melbourne, A.C.E.R.

Abstracting Services are also types of indexes.

An abstracting service gives the same information as a periodical index and indexing services, but also includes a short summary of the items listed. The summary or abstract allows the reader to determine the precise content of the periodical article referred to and whether or not it is relevant for the purpose intended, before tracing and reading the item itself.

Indexing Services on Computer. In recent years, publishers have begun to make their indexing and abstracting services available on magnetic tape as well as in conventional print form. This means that subscribers may buy a magnetic tape of the latest issue (or issues covering many years) of an indexing service, and access the information on the tape through use of a computer. This overcomes the delay in producing and distributing printed copies of indexing services, and makes searching for specific topics much faster than if done in the conventional way.

At the moment it is mainly large libraries which can afford to run their indexing services on a computer. However, this will change as computers become more widespread. In the meantime, it is possible for small libraries to have access to computer-based indexing and abstracting services either through a large library, such as the national library of a country, or through a commercial agency such as Lockheed which is based in California, U.S.A.

2. (b) Bibliographies

Definition

A bibliography is a list of books and other resources such as periodical articles, audiovisual resources. The scope and coverage of bibliographies varies enormously, according to the purpose of the bibliography. All bibliographies contain bibliographical information on published materials including details where relevant of author, editor, title, publisher, date of publication, price, format.

Use

Bibliographies are used to answer a variety of questions, for example:

- what are the bibliographical details on a published item?
- what are some references to published materials on a subject or person?
- is a particular book owned by another library?
- what books and audiovisual resources are available for purchase on a particular topic?
- what books did a particular author write?

Major Types

Bibliographies Based on Individual Countries

These are called national bibliographies and are usually compiled at the national library of a country. These bibliographies aim to include all the items published in a country. They are important resources as they are generally the most comprehensive listings of resources available, and also give full bibliographical and price details which are helpful for ordering items for libraries.

National bibliographies published regularly on an on-going basis are referred to as *current* national bibliographies. Some countries have also compiled *retrospective* national bibliographies to cover the period from the beginning of publishing in that country until the commencing date of the current bibliography.

Some examples of current national bibliographies are:

New Zealand National Bibliography. *Wellington, N.Z., National Library of New Zealand.*

Fiji National Bibliography. *Suva, University of the South Pacific.*

Australian National Bibliography. *Canberra, National Library of Australia.*

Bibliographies Based on Language

These are wider in scope than national bibliographies as they list resources in a given language, regardless of the country in which it has been published. An example of a bibliography based on publication in the English language is:

Cumulative Book Index: a world list of books. *New York, Wilson.*

Bibliographies Based on Format

The basis for a bibliography can also be the format of the resources listed. Some examples are:

Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory: a classified guide to current periodicals foreign and domestic. *New York, Bowler.*

Australian Government Publications. *Canberra, National Library of Australia.*

Bibliographies Based on Commercial Availability

These bibliographies list only items available for purchase either through booksellers or direct from a publishing organisation. They include details of publication prices and relevant addresses of publishers. Some of these bibliographies are published frequently and are a useful source of information on newly published resources.

Examples:

Bookseller: the organ of the booktrade. London, Whittaker, (weekly).

Books in Print. New York, Bowker, (annual).

Australian Books in Print. Melbourne, Thorpe, (monthly).

Bibliographies Based on Physical Location of Particular Items

Some bibliographies make it possible to check whether or not an item is owned by another library. These bibliographies are basically published versions of the catalogue of one or more libraries.

Some examples:

Public Library of New South Wales. Mitchell Library, Dictionary Catalog of Printed Books. 38 vols. Boston, Hall, 1968.

Serials in Australian libraries; Social Sciences and Humanities: a union list. Canberra, National Library of Australia.

Bibliographies Based on Subject

This is an important and useful type of bibliography as these bibliographies deal with a particualr subject in-depth. Most of the bibliographies described above, e.g. national bibliographies attempt to be comprehensive and list all items regardless of value. For subject-based bibliography often a selection process is carried out by a specialist in the field. In such circumstances, the items listed can be recommended to users.

Some examples are:

Pacific Island Bibliography, by F.M. Cammack and S. Saito. New York, Scarecrow, 1962.

Economics of Education: a selected annotated bibliography, by M. Blang. 3rd ed., Oxford, Pergamon, 1978.

Bibliographies of Bibliography and Guide to the Literature

If you have attempted to understand the complexities of the various types of bibliography listed above, you will be consoled to know that you are not alone in finding the variety of bibliographies confusing. To assist people in understanding the bibliographies and literature on a subject, there are two major types of publication:

. Bibliographies of Bibliography. As the name implies, these are lists of lists of books and other resources, indicating where the user will find a bibliography on a given topic. An example is:

Bibliographic Index: a cumulative bibliography of bibliographies. New York, Wilson.

There are also "guides to reference materials" used extensively by librarians. The major ones are:

Sheehy, E.P. Guide to Reference Books. 9th ed., Chicago, A.L.A., 1976; Supplement to 9th ed., Chicago, A.L.A., 1980.

Walford, A.J. Guide to Reference Material. 3 vols. London, Library Association, 1975-1980.

- Guides to the Literature. These give bibliographies, introduction to the subject, guidance on how to find information, and the titles of the most important information resources in the subject field. An example is:

  Burrington, G.A. How to Find Out About the Social Sciences. Oxford, Pergamon, 1975.

(iii) Compiling Your Own Information Resources

No library, however large, can hope to buy every information resource, or have a complete reference collection. However, through co-operation with other information agencies in the network of a country and through sharing resources a library can expect to gain substantially in its access to information, particularly information published in books, periodicals and reference resources.

Despite the benefits of co-operation you may need to gain access to information not available through the network. Such information may only be found in the immediate environment and may not be in a published form to purchase. Typically such information is about the local community itself. In urban centres in the developed countries many libraries make good these deficiencies in the available range of information resources by compiling their own resources.

(a) Directories

One type of information resource which could be compiled by the library staff and the teaching staff is a local information directory which could be maintained on cards, and could include:

- names and addresses of information agencies including libraries from which specialist information might be obtained;
- details of services offered by agencies, e.g. visits by school groups to cultural centres; services offered to aged persons by a church group;
- names and addresses of persons in the community with specialised knowledge which they are willing to share with other persons, e.g. a weaver who is prepared to teach the skill to young people; an elder who is prepared to talk about earlier significant events in the life of the village.

Sources for the above types of information can be found in:

- existing directories, e.g. telephone directory;
- street directory of a town or city;
- local newspaper advertisements or articles which contain reference to an agency, service or person;
- radio, T.V. and other mass media sources;
- friends, neighbours and work colleagues;
- a walk around an area e.g. in a town checking signs, billboards and public notices.

Where possible a personal visit, and at least a telephone call is advisable to check that the information to be recorded is accurate. In the case of an individual person being included in the directory you should also check if there are any objections to your referring students to the person for assistance. Regular up-dating of recorded information is essential. Out-of-date information is misleading. As suggested earlier this type of directory is often kept on cards or in a loose-leaf binder.

(b) Oral Tradition

A great deal of information is not written down but is distributed by the spoken word. This is known as the oral tradition.

Many library and information workers actively assist people to record this type of information in other forms such as in photographs, on audio tape, or on videotape. Many schools have portable cameras and sound tape cassette recorders, and can go into the community to collect this type of information. The type of information collected might be myths and legends previously passed on through the oral tradition; it might be music of a special local nature played by an expert; it might be a tape of some singing and dancing, or it might be photographs which show the steps in making a special type of local pottery. It will be obvious that resources of this type are a valuable source of information of a school.

SECTION 4

4.3 Locating Information in Non-Print Resources

(i) Audiovisual Resources in Education

Audiovisual resources were first used in classrooms as a type of entertainment, then to keep the attention of students by showing, for example, in a geography lesson, pictures of people in other countries. Teachers to-day realise that these pictures can be more than entertainment and that students can learn directly from such resources. In some cases students can learn even more effectively from audiovisual resources than they can from simply being told about a subject. To-day many teachers integrate audiovisual resources into the teaching/learning process.

In the previous Section 4.2 we discussed the five terms contents list, index, appendices, bibliography and glossary in relation to print resources. The reason for this is that they are most commonly found in such resources. However, in relation to non-print resources, the same type of explanatory aid is often available. We shall examine several non-print resources in order to demonstrate how that information is recorded. It may not be as detailed or comprehensive as with print resources. We shall examine a gramophone record, a sound tape cassette, a 16 mm film and a multi-media kit.

(a) gramophone record - relevant information will be found on the record jacket or container, on the gramophone record label or in accompanying material. Information on a record of popular music will include the:

- (i) title of the record;
- (ii) title of the songs in their sequential pattern on the record;
- (iii) name/names of the performer/performers;
- (iv) time taken for each song;
- (v) details of the persons/organisations responsible for the technical production of the gramophone.

(b) sound tape cassette - relevant information will be found on the cassette label, or in accompanying material. The information recorded will be similar to that listed for a gramophone record. You can see that both (a) and (b) have a form of contents list and/or an index. If they have accompanying material, then this is what we mean as appendices. The accompanying material is usually in a print format such as a published booklet, or pamphlet, or perhaps, a set of duplicated notes.

(c) 16 mm film - relevant information may be given on the film itself, on the film reel, or on the container, or the accompanying material. Information will usually be available in the same way as with (a) and (b).

(d) multi-media kit - as this type of publication includes a range of information resources, both print and non-print, the organisation for contents lists, indexes, etc. presents some problems. This is why a multi-media kit must have accompanying and explanatory material to help the user identify what is included in the kit; how each item relates to each other item, and how the total package should be used to achieve the educational aims and objectives of the school. Therefore you will find a printed contents list, a set of appendices and usually a glossary of relevant terms and difficult words.

(ii) Types of Non-Print Resource

These non-print resources can be grouped as follows:

1. Resources Where Special Equipment is Required

These items require some type of mechanical aid for them to be used. In most cases a power source is also needed.

Resource	Equipment
. transparencies	. overhead projector
. slides	. slide viewers or slide projectors
. filmstrips	. viewer
. motion film (8mm, 16mm)	. film projector
. records	. record player (phonography)
. audio tape - reel to reel and cassette	. cassette tape player or reel-to-reel tape player
. videotape	. videotape player + T.V.

Specific audiovisual items which combine two or more of the above are also found, e.g. kits or multimedia kits.

It is important to note that many simple and inexpensive pieces of equipment may be used with audiovisual resources. For example, a small hand-held slide viewer can be used by individual students and be very effective where there is no electrically powered slide projector.

2. Resources Where Special Equipment is Not Required

The benefits of this type of resource will be obvious. There is little maintenance required and no electrical or other source of power needed. This type includes:

- graphic materials, e.g. prints, i.e. flat pictures, photographs, posters, maps, diagrams, charts, which combine words and drawings to communicate ideas.
- three dimensional materials, e.g. displays and exhibits, globes of the world, models, e.g. minature airplanes, realia or real objects such as rocks, sections of a bicycle, a cutting tool, which are real objects or replicas of real objects.

1. (a) Transparencies

Transparencies are made from transparent acetate or plastic sheets, and measure about 20 x 30 cm. They usually contain diagrams and/or print in black or colour. The sheet itself may also be coloured. Transparencies are projected onto a screen or flat white wall using an overhead projector. The image from the transparency may be viewed in daylight.

Transparencies may be purchased commercially in finished form ready to be used in the classroom. It is more usual, however, for blank transparency sheets or rolls to be purchased and the content (drawings, words, etc) to be added by the teachers themselves. This is done using special pens or by the use of an infra-red copier which allows material from printed sources, e.g. a diagram in a book, to be made into a transparency.

Features of transparencies are:

- they may be used in daylight;
- the teacher can face the class as they are being used;
- easy to prepare in advance;
- may be read with the naked eye.

Disadvantages include:

- angle of the projector and the screen must be adjusted carefully to avoid distortion of the image on the screen, giving a keystone effect;
- quality of acetate film deteriorates over time;
- projector lamps are fragile.

1. (b) Slides

A slide is a film transparency mounted in a rigid frame. Modern slides measure 5 x 5 cm and are usually in colour. They are mainly intended to be projected onto a screen. They may also be viewed by an individual using a hand-held viewer which relies on a power source such as battery or natural light.

Slides may be purchased in sets from commercial suppliers. They can also be easily and cheaply provided by using a 35 mm camera and slide film. It is also possible to make slides using the Ektagraphic Visualmaker produced by the Kodak company. The Visualmaker is a kit which includes a camera and various stands and a light reflector. With the Visualmaker it is very easy to make slides from printed material such as books. It is also possible to use the Visualmaker to make slides of small three-dimensional objects such as a flower or a watch.

Slides are often included in multi-media kits and may have audio-tape soundtrack synchronized with them.

Features of slides:

- versatile - individual slides may be used in many teaching situations;
- cheap to produce;
- particularly effective when projected onto a screen and shown to a group.

Disadvantages include:

- individual slides from sets easily lost
- easily damaged unless protected by special glass mounting - fingerprints on the film can damage the slide permanently;
- necessity to mark slides individually for identification purposes.

1. (c) Filmstrips

A filmstrip is a length of film made usually from 35mm positive film. Each filmstrip contains a sequence of still pictures, often with printed captions. Each picture may use a half or full frame on the film. Filmstrips may be used for individual or group viewing.

Features of filmstrips are:

- individual pictures are arranged in sequence for projection and cannot get out of sequence as often happens with slides;
- individual frames cannot be lost;
- sound may be introduced by use of tapes and records by the teacher. (Some filmstrips may be bought with film and sound synchronized);
- a large range of topics are covered on filmstrips available for purchase.

Disadvantages include:

. sequence of pictures may not be the sequence the teacher requires;

. if one frame is out-of-date the filmstrip may not be as effective;

. they are easily damaged in handling;

. difficult to repair.

1. (d) Motion Films

A motion film consists of a series of still pictures on a length of 35mm, 16mm or 8mm film. When the images are projected in rapid succession an illusion of motion is created. Motion films are usually accompanied by a soundtrack. A projector is used to project the images onto a screen. The motion films commonly used in schools are 16mm, standard 8mm and or super 8mm. 16mm film usually comes on an open reel. 8mm films are available on open reels, and/or film loops in cassettes or cartridges. Many teachers now make their own super 8mm motion pictures for use in school, particularly since the spread of home movies as a hobby.

Features of motion films are:

. effectiveness as a medium in teaching;

. possibility of borrowing films from institutions outside the school, e.g. consulates, large companies.

Disadvantages include:

. expense of making or purchasing films;

. level of maintenance required for projectors;

. films deteriorate and may be easily damaged through careless handling.

1. (e) Records

Records are known also as sound discs, phonograph records or gramophone records. They are produced in various sizes such as 18cm, 25cm or 31cm. Playing speeds of 45 and $33\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute are common. Records are used with a record player which reproduces the sound on the disc. Records are available in monophone (mono) or stereophonic (stereo) sound versions. Both types may be played on stereographic equipment, but a stereo record effect will be obtained only if stereo recording is played on stereo equipment.

Features of records are:

. excellent quality of sound reproduction;
. easy to locate the section of the record which is needed;
. wide variety of records, particularly with music and spoken word (including language instruction) available;
. many homes have a record player.

Disadvantages include:

. records are easily damaged;
. good equipment is expensive to buy;
. good equipment is delicate and needs careful maintenance.

1. (f) Audio-tapes

Audio-tapes, or as they are often simply called, "tapes", are sound recordings made on magnetic tape. Audio-tapes are available as open reels or in cassette form. Tape recording machines may also be used to reproduce recorded sound, but tape players can only be used to play back tapes. Audio-tapes may be purchased with content already recorded on them. Blank tapes may also be purchased and content added as needed by recording or copying content from another tape.

Features of audio-tapes are:
- wide variety of formats, recording lengths, quality of reproduction;
- relative cheapness of cassette tapes and players and widespread availability;
- tapes are re-usable;
- may be easily produced and duplicated;
- ease of use and storage of cassette tapes;
- wide range of recordings available;
- possibility of taping radio programmes.

Disadvantages include:
- possibility of damage to tape, particularly open-reel tape;
- possibility of waste of tape when only a portion of it is used for recording.

1. (g) Videotapes

Videotapes are recordings of visual images, which are accompanied by sound and may be played back through a video-playing machine and a television set. The most common form of videotape is on magnetic tape and may be an open reel, cassette or cartridge format. A recent technical development is video recording on a flexible disc.

Features of videotapes are:
- a wide variety of videotapes is available commercially and on loan;
- possibility of teachers making their own videotapes for classroom use;

- may be viewed in daylight;
- easy to select one section for playing rather than complete tape. (This is difficult with motion film);
- more suitable for use by an individual, than motion film.

Disadvantages include:

- lack of a standard format for videotapes. Each country has a preferred format and there is uncertainty about future developments;
- cameras, recording and playback equipment is expensive;
- all equipment is delicate and needs careful maintenance;
- quality of reproduction on a videotape deteriorates with use and over time;
- necessity to conform with copyright requirements when recording or duplicating items.

1. (h) Kits

These are items in which two or more types of audiovisual resource have been used. They are also called multi-media kits. A common type of kit includes printed materials, slides and an audio-cassette.

The advantages of kits are that the various types of resources are already packaged together for the teacher to use in the classroom and the parts of the kit are therefore well co-ordinated together.

2. (a) Graphic Materials

Some useful types of non-projected audiovisual resources are graphic materials which contain illustrations, diagrams and charts. They come in various sizes and types:

- Prints, i.e. flat pictures. These are in a variety of sizes, in colour or black and white, and can be collected easily and cheaply for the classroom. Sources of prints include magazines, advertising material, newspapers, calendars, and tourist offices, embassy or consular offices, commercial firms.
- Photographs of subjects the teacher might deal with in the classroom can also be obtained relatively easily. In addition, the school library, or the teacher, can take photographs in black and white or colour and these can be stored in the library for future use.
- Maps can come in atlases which contain many maps, or individually, e.g. a map of New Zealand. Many maps are available free from tourist organisations in various countries, and the embassy or consular offices. Sometimes magazines print small maps as part of an article. The *National Geographic* magazine occasionally includes a large pull-out map in an issue.

2. (b) Three Dimensional Aids

A type of resource that does not require special equipment is the three-dimensional aid. These include:

- Models, which are minatures. For example, a model of a house or an airplane, or a globe of the world. They can be a useful aid to a teacher.
- Exhibits. Some libraries keep exhibits which are collections of real-life objects related to a topic. For example, a set of cooking utensils. Individual real-life objects are called "realia" and many libraries also keep them.

- Displays, visual arrangements of resources, which can often be two dimensional and are useful in attracting students' attention or the displays themselves can be constructed by the students from the work they have done, e.g. on people of different countries.
- Dioramas, created by using realistic replicas of objects in the foreground and a painted backdrop which is often curved to suggest depth, e.g. a village scene.

SECTION 4

4.4 Using Audio-visual Equipment

(a) Types of Equipment

Many types of audio-visual resources need special equipment:

1. Non-mechanical equipment, including various types of boards and screens as additional equipment to enhance the use of audiovisual resources.
2. Mechanical equipment, for two major purposes:
   (a) projecting;
   (b) recording and reproducing sound.

1. Non-mechanical Equipment

Many simple pieces of equipment may be purchased or made to assist the teacher in use of audio-visual techniques in teaching.

(a) Boards

- bulletin boards, made from a rectangular piece of soft wood, cork or other material into which pins and drawing pins may be pushed; used to display notices, a collection of pictures arranged around a theme making a focal point in the classroom.
- chalk boards or white boards; used to illustrate points, demonstrate techniques. White boards need special coloured pens.
- felt or flannel boards; to display objects which need to be backed with flannel, felt or sandpaper.
- magnetic boards consisting of a metal sheet covered with chalk board paint; metal objects or items backed with a magnet may be mounted; may also be used as a chalkboard.

- pegboards with holes to which pegs, brackets and holders may be attached; many items may be displayed.

(b) Screens, usually required for use with projectors of various types, e.g. slide projector. However, if the walls of the room are painted in white and one wall is free, a screen may not be needed. There are several types of screen. The common ones are:

- simple home-made screen; using a white bed-sheet or paper attached to wall;
- matte white; versatile and easily cleaned, best where the light source on them is strong, e.g. overhead projector.
- aluminised screens; good for daylight viewing, give a sharp picture and are sturdy.
- glass-beaded screens; expensive and difficult to clean but give a bright sharp image.

Screens may be the roll-up type or fixed in one position. When selecting a screen you will need to consider projection methods to be used, i.e. whether the projector will project the image directly onto the screen or by rear projection techniques. In rear projection, the projector is out-of-view, behind the screen. There is a special opaque screen for rear projection.

2. Mechanical Equipment:

(a) Projectors:

- Images are projected in two forms. Still images require "still projection", and images in motion, "motion projection".

- In still projection enlarged images of picture are projected onto a flat surface, and may be viewed for as long as wished. An example of this is slide projection. In motion projection a series of images are projected onto a flat surface in rapid succession to give the illusion of movement. An example of this is "movie" or "motion film" projection.
- All projecting has something in common. First, there is a source of light - the projector lamp or globe, second, a transparent image such as film slide and third, there is a lens which focuses the image on a flat surface.

(b) Recording and Play-back Machines

Modern methods of recording make use of electronics. Each recording machine has a microphone which acts to change pressure waves (sound) in the air and turn it into electric impulses. This is a weak impulse which is then amplified by the amplifier and is carried to one of three types of recording head. Different types of recording heads are used for discs, (i.e. records), films (for motion film) and magnetic tape (for tape recorders).

Playback of the three type recordings is done through a mechanism which allows what is stored on disc, film or tape to be reconverted into electronic impulses to produce sound. Some recording machines have play-back facilities built in. Machines which are play-back machines only are also available, e.g. cassette tape players which do not record sound.

(b) Individual Items of Audio-Visual Equipment

Individual items with which you should be familiar are described in Modules 1-13 of the textbook listed below. Work through these Modules, paying particular attention to Modules:

No.	
1	Cassette recorders
6	Reel-to-reel tape recorders
4	Record players
2	Slide projectors
3	Filmstrip projectors
5	Overhead projectors
9	Videotape recorders
12	Videotape cassette recorders
10	16mm movie projectors.

When you have completed these Modules you should be:

1. familiar with the range of audiovisual equipment
2. able to operate at least six items of equipment.

(c) Security

In a busy school, it is easy to lose track of equipment. It is essential therefore to have a system for security and control of individual items:

(a) all pieces of equipment should be clearly marked as school property. A diamond-tip etching tool or other sharp implement may be

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Textbook: *Ticehurst, Bill and others. A Competency-based Guide to the Operation of Projectors, Sound Systems, Videorecorders, Microcomputers. Lindfield, N.S.W., Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education, 1982.*

used to mark the pieces of equipment if necessary.

(b) storage arrangements for the equipment should give security, particularly for small portable items such as cassette recorders.

(c) an inventory of all equipment should be maintained.

(d) Equipment Maintenance Programme

An important factor in provision of audiovisual equipment in the school is the maintenance programme usually devised by the school librarian. Sending equipment out of the school for repair involves time and money. In addition, teachers do not have access to equipment needed for teaching and the resources often cannot be used when they are needed. This may be avoided if a maintenance programme is implemented.

Preventative maintenance will prolong the life of the equipment and there will be fewer disappointments with machines that do not work. A maintenance system involves setting up a few procedures.

- the inventory of equipment;
- maintenance scheduling chart;
- maintenance records.

Inventory of Equipment

All equipment in the school should be listed in an inventory. The system does not need to be elaborate, but should contain enough information to identify an individual machine, e.g.

- type of equipment, e.g. cassette recorder;
- purchase date;
- maker's name;
- model;
- manufacturer's number;

- cost;
- identification number if allocated by library.

This is an example of an inventory.

Type of Equipment	Purchase Date	Manufact-urer	Model	Serial No.	Cost	Library Id. No.
Cassette Recorder	20 Dec.'81	Sony	TC110A	X4329207	$80	1
Cassette Recorder	20 Dec.'81	Sony	TC110A	X3097302	$80	2
Slide Projector	2 Feb. '82	Kodak	Carousel	X5093218	$300	3
Overhead Projector	9 Mar. '82	Bell & Howell	360A	C9423021	$150	4

Maintenance Scheduling Chart

The maintenance scheduling chart is a summary chart of routine procedures, and should be kept in a prominent place. It lists the type of equipment procedures, and frequency with which they should be carried out.

Example of a maintenance scheduling chart:

Equipment	Procedure	Frequency
1. Tape recorders (reel-to-reel and cassettes)	1. Clean heads	1 month
2. Movie film projectors	1. Clean lens 2. Clean film path	1 month
3. Record players	1. Clean needle 2. Dust machines	1 month

The items listed in the maintenance chart depend on the items held. The specific procedures should consider manufacturer's recommendations. Frequency will depend on how heavily used the items are. Periods between routine maintenance inspections could be shorter than suggested in the sample maintenance chart in some cases.

Maintenance Records

When the maintenance procedures for an item have been carried out, this should be noted on a card or in a notebook. The same card or notebook may be used for noting emergency or unscheduled repairs so that there is a complete record of any problems with the equipment as well as regular care given to it. This type of record is particularly useful when an item has to be sent out of the school for repair, or back to the manufacturer. An example of a maintenance notebook follows:

Overhead Projectors

Id. No.	Location	Scheduled Maintenance			Unscheduled Maintenance
4	School Assembly	Oct 3 '82	Nov 5 '82	Dec 1 '82	Replaced bulb 28 Oct. '82
5	School Library	Oct 3 '82	Nov 5 '82	Dec 1 '82	Replaced acetate roll Dec. 3 '82

(e) Maintenance Procedures

Manufacturers will often suggest procedures to be used with specific items. These are some general guidelines:

16mm Projectors

- Clean film track using small paint brush. Pay attention to where film passes over audio pick-up gate and the film gate itself. Clean lenses and reflective surfaces.

Reel-to-reel Tape Recorders

- Remove head cap, (usually plastic). Clean audio heads with a cotton swab and alcohol or special head cleaner. Clean moving parts which come in contact with the tape.

Cassette Tape Recorders

- Clean the parts as for reel-to-reel recorders. Note that damage to this type of recorder often caused by failure to push the STOP button when changing mode of operation.

Filmstrip Projectors

. Remove gate assembly or glass carriage where possible. Clean out dust and film chips. Clean lens and reflective surfaces.

Overhead Projector

. Clean projection lenses and platform. Check spare bulb if machine uses one.

Record Players

. Clean needle or cartridge area with soft camel hair brush. Clean drive wheel with alcohol. Dust machine thoroughly.

Slide Projectors

. Clean lens with soft brush. To remove finger-prints and grime, place one drop of fluid lens cleaner on the end of the lens and wipe with soft lint-free cloth.

Videotape Recorder and Playback

. Clean entire tape track with a cotton swab soaked in alcohol or head cleaner. Clean audio head. Clean under head using a horizontal action and use well soaked swab to flush particles from head. Clean screen on television monitor and spin dials to get rid of oxidation.

In General

. check all electrical plugs and cords for fraying;

. ensure that manufacturer's recommendations for lamp cooling especially in overhead projectors is observed. The life of the lamp can be made a lot longer this way.

(f) Equipment Distribution

There is seldom a situation in a school where all equipment is held centrally and loaned from there on request. Usually some items of equipment, e.g. overhead projectors or pin boards are more or less permanently left in the location where they are used. This arrangement is convenient when items are used frequently. However, for this system to be successful, there must be:

1. enough equipment for all teachers to have access to what they need;
2. a central inventory of all items held in the school, regardless of where the item is kept.

It is important that individual pieces of audiovisual equipment do not become regarded as the property of individual classrooms or departments, and that all teachers in the school have a right to use the equipment owned by the school.

An important feature of a school library which includes audiovisual resources and equipment is a booking and distribution system for the items. It should be possible for an individual teacher to specify, in advance, the day and time on which an item is required, so that he or she can plan a class and be confident of being able to use a particular item of equipment. In large schools which have a substantial collection of equipment, a detailed booking system is needed, with forms devised for use by teachers.

An example of a form for use by teachers requesting an item follows:

Equipment Request Form

Teachers Name

Room Number

Date Wanted

Date and Time to be picked up/ delivered

Item(s) Required

Requests must be received by library no later than 24 hours before item is needed.

In smaller schools, a booking system may be operated by using a simple diary method. The item required can be noted, teacher's name, place and so on. This diary can then be checked on a regular basis and arrangements to distribute equipment made accordingly.

(g) Simple Repairs

When repairs are needed to equipment or resources, it is sometimes possible to do this without sending the item out of the school. Care should be taken however, not to break seals or tamper with electrical equipment. Manufacturer's recommendations should always be followed in these cases.

Important Rules

- Never force a machine if the mechanism gets stuck.
- If smoke comes out of a machine, switch off the power immediately, and pull out the plug.
- In cases where a piece of equipment which uses power, does not operate, check:

- is it plugged in properly?
- is it switched on at mains and on machine itself?
- is the fuse working?
- if it uses batteries - are these flat?

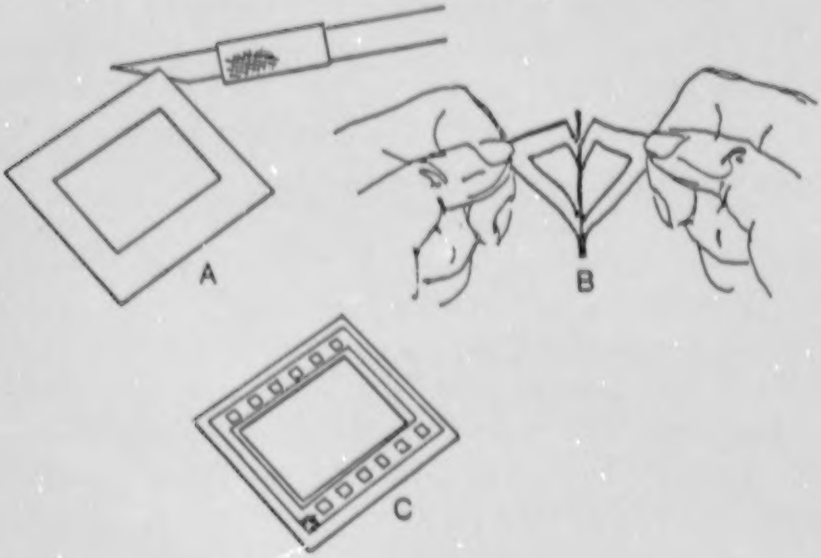
Slides. Sometimes the mounting on a slide needs to be replaced, when it gets worn or broken. New mounts may be purchased for this purpose.

To remount a slide, work on a clean surface and split the mount open at the corner with a sharp blade or knife. Gently pull the front and back sections of the mount away from the transparent film. Do not touch the surface of the film. Peel off the mount gently where it will have been lightly glued. Dust the transparency carefully with a special anti-static or camel hair brush.

When remounting the transparency take care to position it carefully on the new mount. Special aids are available for this purpose. The emulsion side of the transparency has a matte look. Take care to mount this side so that it will face towards the lens side of the projector when the slide is in position in the projector. If you make an error in this, the slide will be out of focus when shown in a projector with an automatic focus mechanism.

In the following diagram the steps of opening a small cardboard slide mount are given.

. Opening a Cardboard Slide Mount

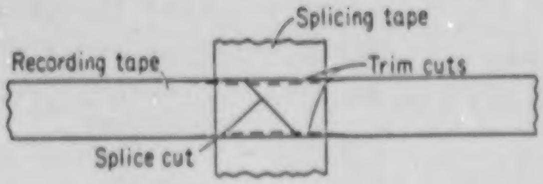


Audio-tapes. When the magnetic tape in a cassette or reel-to-reel audiotape is broken, it is possible to mend it quite satisfactorily. Use the special pressure-sensitive adhesive tape available commercially for this purpose.

To make a good join or splice:

- cut the ends of broken tape at an angle of 45°;
- align the end with the shiny side up;
- cover the ends with a strip of splicing tape. Press firmly to secure the join;
- trim off excess splicing tape, making sure that no section of the sticky side of the splicing tape is left exposed.

Diagram of a tape splice



Should the plastic cassette itself break it is possible to repair it with a special kit available from electronics shops.

Films and Filmstrips. With reel-to-reel film, a bad splice or torn sprocket hole can cause the film to jam in the projector. This should be attended to at once and the projector turned off before the film burns from the heat of the projector lamp.

A severe jam will cause the film to break. The film will need to be mended using special tape. If the film does not belong to the school, do not attempt any repair, do not rewind the film and be sure to mention the break when you return the film. Mark the break with a slip of paper inserted in the take-up reel.

Filmstrip is difficult to use after a repair as even with careful mending, the splice will be thicker than the rest of the film, and will jam in automatic filmstrip projectors.

Overhead Projectors. Lamps (globes, bulbs) in overhead projectors need replacement from time to time. Always keep a spare lamp in hand to replace a lamp. Follow manufacturer's instructions for getting access to the lamp socket in the projector. (On many machines the top section of the projector is hinged below the platform).

Before inserting the new lamp, check that the numbers on the new and old lamps match and that the bulb base is the same in both cases. Avoid touching the glass with your fingers, as the natural oil on your fingers may weaken the heated glass and shorten the life of the lamp.

A common fault found with use of overhead projectors is the keystone effect. This is caused by lack of adjustment to align the angle of the projector and the screen being used. See the textbook by Ticehurst, p. 38, on the method to correct this fault.

SECTION 5 - THE TEACHER PRODUCES INFORMATION RESOURCES

Contents

5.1 Design, Development and Evaluation of Resources

5.2 Preparation of Audiovisual Resources

SECTION 5

5.1 Design, Development and Evaluation of Resources

It can be difficult for a teacher to decide which is the most appropriate information resource/media to use in a particular teaching situation. It is important first to think through the desired educational outcome, i.e. for what purpose do I want these information resources/media, and second to ask how effective will the different types of information resources be in meeting these desired educational outcomes.

One writer*has produced a rough rating on the effectiveness of different media when used in accomplishing the major learning objectives of:

- learning factual information such as names, dates, events, definitions;
- learning visual information, involving visual cues to discriminate one element from another;
- learning principles, concepts and rules, understanding relationships among things or events, meaning of rules etc.;
- learning procedures, carrying out a sequence of events;
- performing skilled perceptual motor acts, carrying them out in correct order;
- developing desirable attributes, opinions, motivations, enhancing learner's preference for a particular point of view.

The writer goes on to suggest the following steps:

(a) state the exact behaviour to be expected of the learner;

(b) identify the type of learning objective being met by the instruction;

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* *Selecting Media for Learning. Washington, Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 1974.*

(c) write down the particular "learning event" that will occur;

(d) determine availability of the resources or media and relevant equipment;

(e) prepare and produce any unavailable resources.

The rough rating worked out by the writer is reproduced in the following chart for you to evaluate in the light of your own teaching situation.

EQUIPMENT/MEDIA RELATIONSHIPS AND CONSIDERATIONS

Instrument	Media Used	Materials Production Considerations	Availability of Facilities and Equipment	Equipment Cost
1. Filmstrip or slide projector	35mm filmstrips or 2x2 slides	Inexpensive. May be done locally in short time.	Usually available. Requires darkened room.	low
2. Overhead transparency projector	Still pictures and graphic representations	Very inexpensive. May be done locally in short time.	Available. May be projected in light room.	low
3. Wall charts or posters	Still pictures	Very inexpensive. May be done locally in very short time.	Available. No special equipment needed.	very low
4. Motion pictures (projection to groups)	16mm motion picture (sound or silent)	Specially-produced. Sound film is costly and requires 6-12 months time.	Usually available. Requires darkened classroom.	moderate
5. Motion picture projection as repetitive loops (8mm silent) to individuals	8mm motion picture film (silent)	Special production normally necessary. May be produced as 16mm film alone or locally at low cost and in short time.	Not normally available. Will need to be specially procured to meet requirement of instructional program.	low per unit, but moderate for groups
6. Magnetic tape recorder	1/4" magnetic tape	Easy and inexpensive. Usually produced locally.	Available	low
7. Record player	33 1/3, 45 or 78 rpm disk recordings	Need special recording facilities. Usually commercially made.	Usually available	low
8. Display area	3-D models	May vary in complexity and in difficulty of production. Component parts easy to obtain.	Available	varies from low to high
9. Television (closed-circuit)	Live presentations. Motion picture film. Videotape recordings. Still pictures.	Normally requires large and skilled production staff.	Not normally available	moderate to high
10. Teaching machines & programed textbooks	Programed material	Some programs available commercially. But will normally be specially prepared for course.	Not normally available	low per unit, but moderate for groups
11. System combinations	Television. Motion pictures. Still pictures. Audio recordings.	Complex. Probably will be done locally to meet specific requirements.	Not normally available	moderate to high

BEST COPY

Teachers need to develop skill in evaluation of commercially produced non-print resources as well as applying the same skill when developing their own resources.

There are certain criteria or checklists which can assist the teacher in developing such skill and some of these are included here for you to use in this development.

The following forms have been devised by Sue Nielsen, a lecturer in Library and Information Studies at Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education, Lindfield, Australia.

Media Evaluation Form

devised by Sue Nielsen

Description

Title: Medium:

Producer: Date:

Components: Price:

Length: Subject:

Age/Level: Individual/Small Group/Large Group Use

FORMAT EVALUATION

	Good	Fair	Poor	Comments
Audio component (tape, soundtrack, etc.) Clarity Fidelity Intelligibility Balance of elements (e.g. music) Synchronization with image				
Visual component Picture/frame composition Colour fidelity Focus and exposure Quality of acting Editing Legibility of captions Relevant captions Registration of O.H.T. Overlays				

CONTENT EVALUATION

	Good	Fair	Poor	Comments
Accuracy				
Currency				
Dateability				
Lack of bias				
Organisation:				
- Length				
- Pacing				
- Sequencing				
Appeal and interest				
USE EVALUATION				
Instructions for use				
Relevance to users' experience:				
- vocabulary				
- visual images (e.g. cars, dress)				
- concepts				
- interests				
Durability of packaging and components				

GENERAL EVALUATION

	Yes	No	Comments
Is medium appropriate for content? (If no, which medium would be more appropriate?)			
Is a cheaper substitute available?			
Recommended in review sources?			
Compatible with existing hardware?			
Recommended for purchase/hire?			

Special Guidelines for Evaluating Multi-Media Software

(devised by Sue Nielsen, Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education, Lindfield, Australia)

Bibliographic Data:

Components of Kit:
- audio -
- visual -
- print -

Relevance of Components:
- all necessary -
- replacement availability -

Instructions for Use:
- inclusion -
- clarity -

Intended Use:
- large group -
- small group -
- individual -

Packaging:
- ease of use -
- storage facility -
- durability -

The above represent only general considerations for multi-media. Specific evaluation criteria need to be applied to each major component of any kit.

SECTION 5

5.2 Preparation of Audiovisual Resources

In addition to having access to commercially produced audiovisual resources from a library collection, the teacher may want to produce some simple and inexpensive audiovisual aids which use easily available equipment and raw materials. Such aids do not require a level of technical skill beyond the basic operation of various pieces of equipment. Some examples of easy-to-prepare resources and suggestions for their preparation follow.

(a) Chalkboard Aids. The chalkboard is often the only form of audiovisual equipment to which a teacher has access and more effective use of the chalkboard can be achieved by having a number of aids available.

- templates, prepared from cardboard, plywood or other light material which allows the teacher to easily trace or reproduce in chalk, shapes which are difficult to draw free-hand, e.g. circles;
- projector drawings, using an opaque projector original, illustrations can be produced in an enlarged form onto the chalkboard. The teacher uses chalk to trace the outline of the projected illustration onto the chalkboard. When the projector is removed, the tracing may be added-to as the teacher wishes.

(b) Lettering Devices are very useful for teachers making their own audiovisual resources:

- lettering guides have letter shapes cut-out from a plastic plate. A pen is used to fill-in the open shape to give a high quality letter.
- felt-tip pens which come in many colours and sizes, help to give a professional look to free hand and other lettering. Lettering pens which use indian ink are also effective.

- . mechanical lettering sets which include a template and pens give a high quality lettering.
- . dry transfer letters are used with a hard smooth device. The letters are transferred from a sheet onto the item being lettered.

(c) Graphic Resources. The raw materials for this type of audiovisual aid, particularly pictures, are freely available. They may be cut from general magazines, brochures or purchased as art prints or posters. A good source is out-of-date books. Often the library wishes to dispose of books which are no longer useful in the school or the text is not relevant or out-of-date. The teacher should ask the school librarian for the opportunity to glance through them. If any of the illustrations look useful they should be cut out and mounted. Similarly photographs or postcards, particularly of the locality, can often be obtained easily from people wishing to dispose of such items.

If a picture has sufficient merit it may be mounted on cardboard or heavy paper. This keeps the picture flat; lengthens its life, makes it easier to handle. When mounting pictures, try to use standardized sizes of mounting board. This makes filing and handling easier. If possible use grey or another neutral colour. There are various types of commercial adhesives which are suitable for mounting. For example:

- . rubber cement which is applied to both picture and mount, or
- . dry mounting which is done with a special dry mount tissue and an iron. A special dry mount press is also available.

To enable larger pictures to be hung, make pin holes in top corners and use suspension eyelets.

Protective coatings for graphic resources include:

- plastic spray - these sometimes flake and chip off;
- plastic bags of various sizes;
- envelopes of transparent laminated plastic
- plastic lamination by laminating machine. This gives expensive but highly effective protection. Some commercial firms will laminate materials on request.

(d) Duplicated Resources. Teachers frequently have need for duplicated materials, which may contain print or other visual information for use in classes. Such materials may be examination papers, assignments, illustrations, tests.

To assist you in assessing forms of duplicating resources the following extract from a textbook by *Brown, Lewis and Harclerod* *AV Instruction Technology, Media and Methods*, *pp. 416-425;* is included.

forms of reproduction

The four principal forms of reproducing multiple copies of various printed, typed, hand-lettered, or hand-drawn items for the classroom are:

☐ SPIRIT DUPLICATING, HECTOGRAPHING This is the well-known process employing aniline-dye carbon papers and a wood- and grain-alcohol fluid to produce masters from which up to 300 or so satisfactory transfer copies can be made.

☐ MIMEOGRAPHING Involves use of the wax-coated stencil through which permanent ink passes, permitting runs as high as 5,000 copies from one master. Modern variations in the preparation of the mimeograph stencil (to be discussed briefly in a later section) have greatly expanded applications of this process in education.

☐ PHOTOCOPYING An especially rapidly expanding field of duplication involving several different process systems: diazo, infrared, dye-transfer, diffusion-transfer, and electrostatic. Details of two of these—electrostatic and infrared—are given here.

☐ PRINTING Also a rapidly changing field of reproduction (particularly offset printing), with numerous applications to the mounting communication needs of classroom teachers and students.

Although other duplicating forms may be mentioned, these four are most commonly encountered in schools.

general pointers in preparing materials

Several general pointers, if observed, will facilitate preparation of good masters for spirit duplicating, mimeograph, photocopy, or offset printing:

☐ ORGANIZE MATERIALS Edit carefully. Insert heads where needed; be consistent in your wording. Be sure your presentation scans—that its statements have parallel construction and that, if you use the outline form, it is correct and consistent. Perhaps it will be possible to use contrasting type to emphasize section heads.

☐ CLEAN YOUR TYPEWRITER A clean typewriter is essential for producing good copy. Brush keys carefully or use plastic gum-cleaning materials. Test for smudging or filled-in type faces by typing a few sample lines.

☐ USE A GOOD TYPEWRITER—CORRECTLY An electric typewriter gives best results. If you use a manual typewriter, employ an even, staccato touch and type more slowly than your normal speed.

☐ DEVELOP AN ATTRACTIVE LAYOUT To plan spacing, it is a good practice to type a preliminary rough copy first. Examine this draft for spacing adjustments you can make as you prepare the finished version. Leave enough margin so that copy is not cropped in the duplication process. Use space between blocks of copy to separate ideas or items. Where appropriate, use capital letters, underline, vary type styles (as is possible with the IBM ball-type typewriter), make guide-lettered headings, or rule boxes to set off headings or copy. Use a ruler to produce straight lines.

☐ JUSTIFY LINES FOR BLOCKED EFFECTS You may sometimes wish to have your typed lines appear "in line" on the right-hand margins, as in printing. To achieve this effect on an ordinary manual or electric typewriter, set margins to desired width—and type, but not beyond this width. Fill out extra spaces with X or *:

Typed lines which have an**
even right-hand margin give
your copy a look which is**

Then go back over your copy and indicate by pencil checks where you can skip spaces. Spread these skips so they do not occur directly under one another, making rivers of white space.

Typed✓lines which✓have an**
even right-hand margin give
your copy✓a look✓which is**

Then retype the copy, skipping the spaces you have marked with checks:

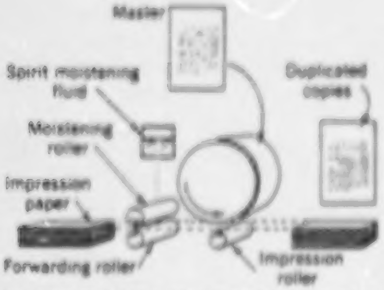
Typed lines which have an
even right-hand margin give
your copy a look which is

☐ PROOFREAD AS YOU GO Or at least make necessary corrections before removing the copy from your typewriter.

☐ CHOOSE THE MOST APPROPRIATE REPRODUCTION METHOD It is uneconomical, for example, to prepare a paper offset master to reproduce only ten or fifteen copies of a simple typewritten statement. Photocopies usually cost more per sheet than those produced in other forms, but they are quite economical for short runs.

spirit duplicating

To duplicate copies by the spirit hectographic process, you will use a rotating-drum machine, a special fluid, and a spirit master. If proper grades of master paper, carbon, and fluid are combined, approximately three hundred legible copies may be run from one master.



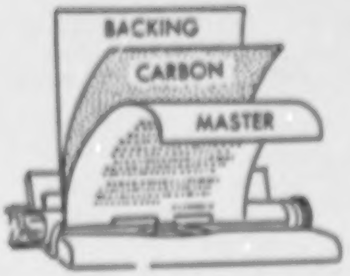
THE SPIRIT (FLUID HECTOGRAPH) PROCESS

preparing the master

A first requirement for satisfactory reproduction with spirit duplicating equipment is a good master. Although preprinted masters (those printed by reproducible carbon) are available for many areas of the curriculum, the majority of masters in use in schools will be teacher- or student-prepared.

To produce a spirit master from which copies may be made, follow these steps:

1. PREPARE THE MASTER PACK The master pack consists of a sheet of spirit master paper and a sheet of spirit carbon paper (with the carbon side up). A backing sheet will ensure clear, sharp copy.



Ditto, Inc.

2. INSERT MASTER PACK INTO TYPEWRITER As you see it in the typewriter, the master paper will be nearest to you (on top), the carbon will be next (carbon side up), and the backing sheet, if used, will be against the typewriter platen. Check alignment to be certain that the typing on the master pack will be straight across (parallel with the top edge).

3. TYPE THE MATERIAL Type with the ribbon in normal position (*not* on "stencil"). Leave at least ½ inch of margin at top and bottom and adequate side margins—at least ¾ inch. Don't crowd copy; leave enough white space. Experiment for best key pressure.

4. MAKING CORRECTIONS It is quite easy to correct mistakes on spirit masters. When you do make an error, you simply have spirit carbon where it is not wanted. To make necessary corrections:

☐ IF YOU DO NOT NEED TO REPLACE LETTERS OR WORDS OVER THE MISTAKE (1) cut them out with a razor blade, a sharp knife, or a small pair of scissors; (2) cover them with cellophane tape, a piece of gummed label, or with a special pencil supplied for this purpose by the manufacturer; or (3) block them out. Also use any one of these methods to eliminate extra letters or other unwanted items.

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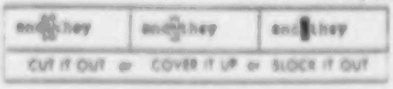
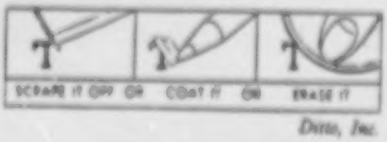

and they
and they
and they
CUT IT OUT or COVER IT UP or BLOCK IT OUT

☐ IF YOU MUST MAKE A CORRECTION AT THE POINT OF ERROR. First eliminate the error. This you do by (1) lightly scraping off the carbon with a razor blade or a curved scalpel, (2) coating the error with the special pencil referred to above, or (3) erasing the error thoroughly.



Ditto, Inc.

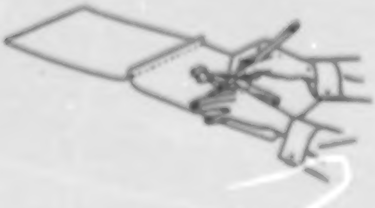
☐ AFTER ELIMINATING THE ERROR, TYPE THE CORRECTION. Remember that you have already used up the carbon at the point of error, so new carbon will be needed there. Experts often tear a small piece of the carbon from a corner of the master for making such corrections in the place where retyping is needed. Remove this slip before going on.

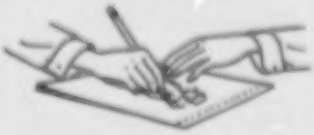
☐ USE SPECIAL SHORTCUTS WHEN APPROPRIATE. Scrape off parts of letters with a razor blade, for example, to produce other letters (to change E to F, or e to c, or others). Or cut masters in two, excising entire sections, and then splice them together with cellophane tape. Working over fresh carbon, use a ball-point pen or hard lead pencil to touch up letters (after removing the master from the typewriter), to change commas to semicolons or periods to colons, to strengthen letters, to insert periods, or to make other similar changes. With some letters you may simply strike over them (changing c to e, h to b, and others).

ADDING HAND-DRAWN MATERIALS. Frequently teachers and students prepare spirit masters completely by hand or add hand-drawn materials to typed masters using these techniques:

FREEHAND DRAWING AND LETTERING. You can add interesting visual materials and increase the communicative power of your spirit duplicated materials by inserting freehand drawings and lettering. To do this, simply follow the directions that are given in the adjoining column.

1. To lay out the material, fold back the carbon sheet from the master sheet. Sketch your drawing or lettering lightly in pencil on the face of the master sheet. (Allow about ½ inch at the top for the duplicator clamp.)





2. Fold the carbon back under the master sheet, leaving the slip sheet out. Go over the drawing or lettering on the master, using a sharp, hard pencil or a ball-point pen on a firm smooth surface.

☐ TRACING. When transferring illustrations (from magazines, clip art, previously prepared drawings, etc.) or lettering onto masters:
1. Remove the slip sheet from the master.
2. Attach the material to the master sheet with tape.
3. Trace over the lines to be reproduced with a pencil or ball-point pen, using firm, even pressure. The image will appear (reversed, like a mirror image) on the back of the master only.

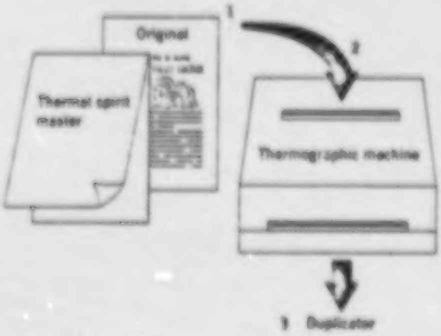
Remember that color brightens duplicated materials. Spirit carbons are commonly purple, but special carbons are also available in red, blue, green, or black. You may obtain helpful special effects by using one of these carbons for the entire copy or by changing carbons for different copy sections. Color is usually reserved for highlighting important items, such as headings, and for specialized materials in certain fields of study (for instance, indicating losses in materials used in teaching bookkeeping). To have part of a master typed or drawn in red, blue, green, or black, prepare the master in the regular way, but when you come to the part you wish to be in another color, substitute a colored carbon for the regular carbon.

making thermal spirit masters

Clean, sharp-looking copies can be produced at low cost by using thermal spirit masters. This process is frequently used to make duplicate copies of charts, line drawings, newspaper and magazine articles, and complex illustrations as well as ordinary typed copy.

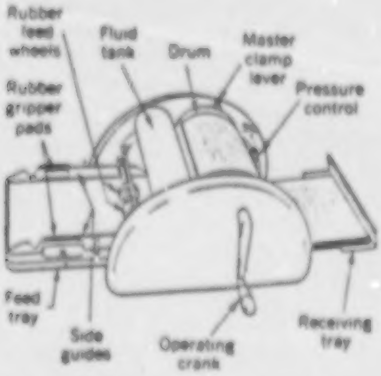
To transfer such copy to a thermal master:

1. Place material to be copied under the thermal spirit master, as shown. Remove the slip sheet.


1
2
Original
Thermal spirit master
Thermographic machine
3 Duplicator

2. Insert this "sandwich" into a thermographic machine (Thermofax, A. B. Dick, others). In only a very few seconds, the heat will cause the carbon dyes to transfer to the master.
3. Carefully peel the master away from the carbon.
4. Attach the master in the usual manner to an ordinary spirit duplicator. Run up to a hundred or more copies, as desired.

operating the spirit duplicator


Rubber feed wheels
Fluid tank
Drum
Master clamp lever
Pressure control
Rubber gripper pads
Feed tray
Side guides
Operating crank
Receiving tray

1. READY THE DUPLICATOR It may be a good idea to ask an experienced operator for help the first few times you use the machine. Be sure there is fluid in the tank. Place paper in the feed tray and adjust paper grippers and guides to the proper width. It may help to run some blank paper through the machine before attaching the master, thus checking positioning and adjustment of grippers.

2. ADJUST THE MACHINE Adjust the pressure lever. Be sure the wick is moist. If the machine has been idle for some time, the wick may be dry and need priming. If the wick is very wet, you will produce darker copies—but fewer of them—before the master must be discarded or recharged.

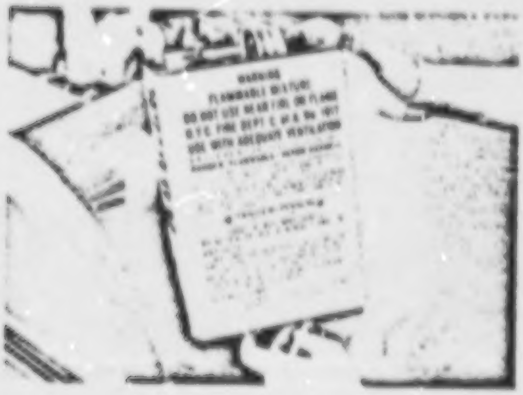
3. ATTACH THE MASTER Turn the handle clockwise to the 6 o'clock position (straight down). Depress the clamp lever to open the clamp that holds the master on the drum. Insert the top edge of the master into the opening (about ¼ inch) so that the side with the carbon faces up when the drum is turned. Then return the clamp lever to its normal locked position.

4. RUN THE COPIES With some machines it will be necessary to turn the handle first counterclockwise to the 4 o'clock position and then clockwise. Each time you turn it all the way around, you will make a copy from the master. Check flow of spirit to avoid smudgy copies.

A. B. Dick Company

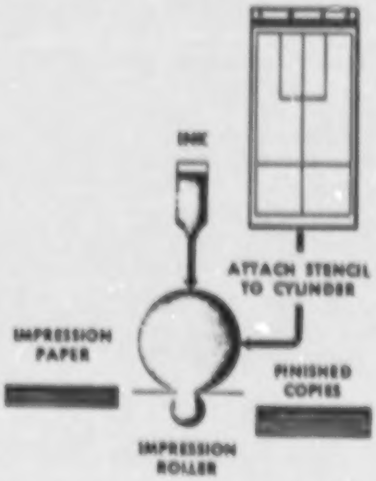
5. REMOVE THE MASTER Stop the handle at the 6 o'clock position. Open the clamp lever, lift out the master without touching the carbon, and close the clamp lever (unless another master is to be run immediately). File the master after stapling to it a specimen piece of the run to protect the carbon side. Set both the copy-control lever and the pressure-control lever at zero. Replace dust cover.

One safety pointer should be mentioned. Most spirit fluids contain methyl alcohol. Avoid undue exposure of the skin to them. Under no circumstances should you use them to cleanse the skin. Continued breathing of methanol vapors may cause illness; do not use spirit duplicating equipment in small, poorly ventilated rooms.



mimeographing

The mimeograph, or stencil, duplicating process has four elements: stencil, ink, paper, and mimeograph machine. The stencil is typed, handwritten, drawn, or reproduced electronically. It is placed on the outside of an inked cylinder. As the paper goes through the mimeograph between cylinder and impression roller, ink flows from inside the cylinder through the inking pad and the stencil to produce a printed impression. It is possible to reproduce as many as 5,000 copies from a single well-prepared stencil.

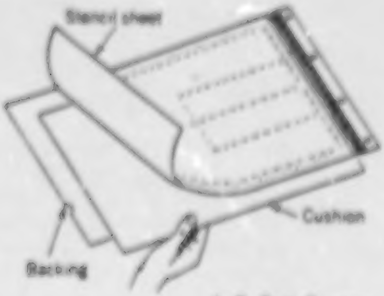


The procedures described here are intended to assist you in learning how to prepare mimeograph stencils and operate the machine.

preparing stencils mechanically

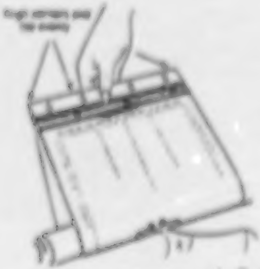
To prepare copy for mimeographing, you need only a mimeograph stencil assembly and some means of imaging it. General suggestions for preparing master copy for reproduction apply to the preparation of mimeograph stencils. Additional pointers follow:

1. SET YOUR TYPEWRITER RIBBON Shift your typewriter ribbon so that letters will strike directly on the stencil rather than on the ribbon. With a typewriter without a "stencil" setting, remove the ribbon entirely.



A. B. Dick Company

2. INSERT THE STENCIL. Place a cushion sheet (supplied in the stencil package) between the stencil sheet and the backing sheet. Leave the backing sheet attached. Insert this assembly into your typewriter, wax stencil side up (toward you).



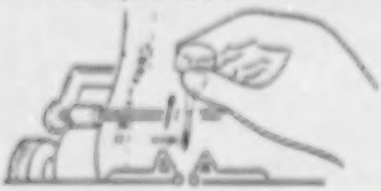
A. B. Dick Company

3. ALIGN STENCIL AND SET TYPEWRITER MARGINS. Align stencil corners and top evenly. Set typewriter side margins within markings printed in light ink on the stencil face. Also observe top and bottom margins, being careful to keep within the 8½- by 11-inch area shown unless you intend to make the run on legal-size (8½- by 14-inch) paper.

4. TYPE THE STENCIL. Type with a firm staccato touch. Make necessary adjustments on the typewriter to provide proper key pressure for cutting the stencil. Be sure to watch the hollow letters (o, b, a, others), which tend to fall apart if stroked too heavily.

5. MAKING CORRECTIONS. If you make mistakes while typing or drawing on stencils, it is quite easy to correct them.

☐ IF YOU ARE USING A STENCIL WITH A COATED WHITE CUSHION, apply correction fluid over the error, allow it to dry, and retype (with a lighter than normal touch). Coat each character separately, using vertical brush strokes.

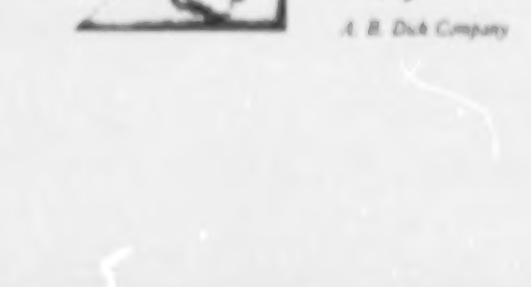

Draw pointed correction fluid brush vertically over mistake

A. B. Dick Company

☐ IF YOU ARE USING A STENCIL WITH A TISSUE (NONCOATED) CUSHION, burnish mistakes by gently rubbing them with the glass rod packed with each bottle of correction fluid. Then apply fluid, allow it to dry thoroughly, and retype, as above.

If you find the number of repairs needed for your stencil has seriously weakened it or splotched its appearance, you may salvage part of it by cutting it apart and cementing a new portion to it. Small mistakes may also be covered with correction fluid (from the top side as you read the stencil).

ADDING HAND-DRAWN MATERIALS. Lines, simple drawings, and lettering can be added to the stencil with a stencil stylus. Place the stencil over your layout against a window or on a glass drawing surface illuminated from beneath. Trace lines with the stylus.



A. B. Dick Company

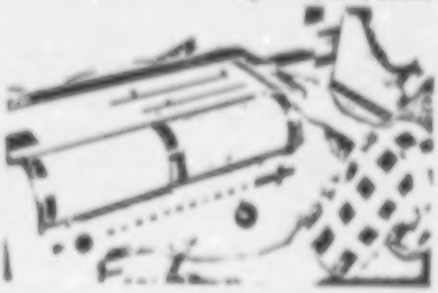
preparing stencils electronically

An electronic mimeograph stencil is produced by a scanning process involving two cylinders side-by-side. The original copy is laid around one cylinder and a blank stencil around the other. The electronic scanner automatically copies lines of dots in the original, transferring them as microscopic perforations to the stencil. These perforations later permit ink to pass through, re-creating the original image on duplicating paper. The process is capable of producing quite faithful facsimiles of lettering, typing, or illustrations.

A. B. Dick Company

One electronic process widely used by schools permits the preparation of an overhead transparency and a duplicating stencil in one operation. In this case, a clear transparency sheet is placed between the blank stencil and the backing sheet. The remainder of the stencil-making process is the same as that described above. The resulting transparency can be projected immediately. Duplicated paper copies of the same materials can also be given out for student notebooks.

Hagerman (Idaho) Schools



operating the mimeograph

As with the spirit duplicator discussed earlier, several basic steps should be taken in operating the mimeograph machine, as follows:

1. CHECK THE INK SUPPLY. See that the drum contains enough ink for the length of run anticipated. Use the ink-measuring rod to determine ink level. Add ink if necessary.

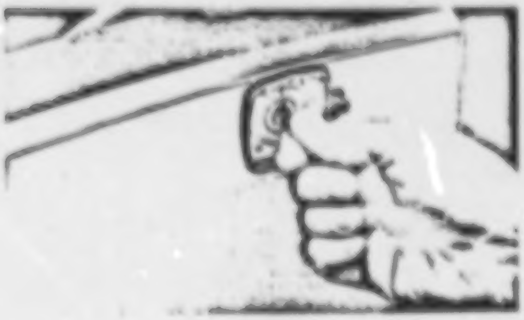
2. ATTACH STENCIL. Place the stencil face down on the revolving drum, with the stiff backing sheet up, toward you. Clamp the stencil top into place, tear off the backing sheet, and clamp the lower portion of the stencil to the cylinder. This stencil "tail" need not be clamped if the blockout is used. Place the blockout strip (about 6 to 9 inches long and 8½ inches wide) over the lower section of the ink pad. This will keep the stencil tail free from ink for easy, clean removal. The lower 2 or 3 inches of the blockout must be clamped *under* the stencil tail clamp. It can stay in that position—on the machine—from one run to the next.

A. B. Dick Company

A. B. Dick Company

3. LOAD THE PAPER SUPPLY Adjust the paper feeder, being sure that wider paper is on top of the pile if there are differences in the paper lots being run at one time.

4. ADJUST THE MACHINE Run a few trial copies and adjust margins up, down, or sideways as needed. Set the counter to ring automatically when the desired number of copies has been run.



5. MAKE THE RUN From time to time, check the quality of impressions. Stand by the machine to stop it if paper jams or if other difficulties arise. During the run, adjust the ink flow as needed.

6. LEAVE THE MACHINE READY FOR THE NEXT USER If the stencil is not to be used again, throw it away. If it is, file it for future use. Place a protective cover directly over the ink pad, sealing it carefully. Check all adjustments to see that they are left in the normal position. Place cylinder in the stop position and replace the dust cover.

Additional information concerning the features of various types of equipment, duplicating supplies, and operating techniques may be obtained from major producers of equipment in this field (addresses of which will be found in Reference Section 6).

photocopying

Recent improvements in photocopy processes and equipment have done much to aid teachers and students in gaining access to valuable verbal and visual materials. Machines described here represent two widely used photocopy processes: electrostatic (xerography) and infrared.

suggestions regarding photocopying

The following suggestions regarding the handling of copy will facilitate uses of either of the two processes:

☐ Be sure to remove all paper clips and staples from copy before commencing the photocopy operation.

☐ Check copy fo[illegible]ed, tissue-thin, or off-size paper or for other irregular items that will require special handling. Patented copy holders (a woven sheath cover, for example) may be used to protect such items against snagging or fouling as they pass through the machine.

☐ Prepare typed copy with a good black carbon or cloth ribbon. As with all other typewritten preparations, be sure keys are clean.

☐ Check copy to be sure it is as free as possible of smudges and marks or poorly made corrections.

☐ Leave a suitable margin around the edges of the copy to avoid crowded effects or the possibility of having some of it cropped off in the process.

☐ Remember that unscreened photographs (glossy black-and-white or color prints, for example) generally reproduce poorly. But screened photographs, such as those appearing in newspapers or magazines, will reproduce quite well.

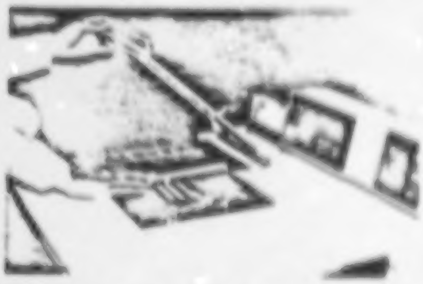
☐ Set the special quantity dial in advance. Save money (and time) by avoiding a careless double or triple printing before you discover the machine is set for more than the number of copies you need.

Copying books (bound documents) by the photocopy method is relatively simple. Saddle-stitched publications often can be taken apart and reproduced in nearly any photocopier. The copying of bound books intact, however, requires a machine having such capability.

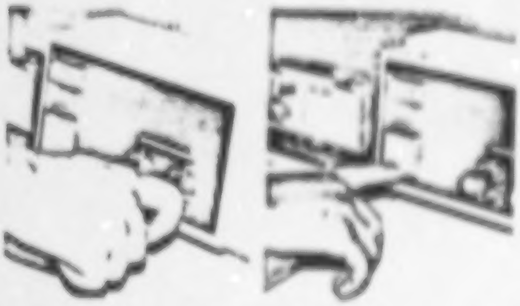
Xerox 4000

The Xerox 4000 photocopy machine reproduces up to forty-five copies per minute of nearly any kind of document—from newspaper clippings to pages from books. A dial may be set to produce from one to ninety-nine copies automatically; a lighted counter records the number of copies run. To operate:

1. Lift the document cover and place the original face down, as shown.



2. Close the cover and dial the number of copies desired.

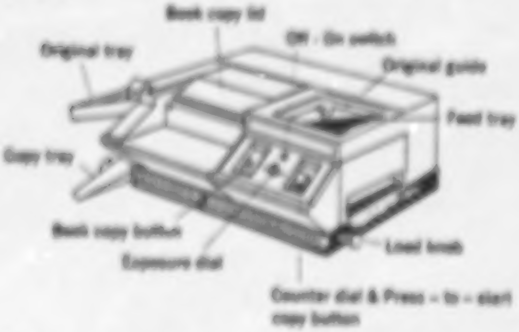


3. Press the START PRINT button.

The Xerox 4000 permits interchanging paper measuring 8 by 10 inches to 8½ by 14 inches without removing the paper stacks, printing of light originals, and printing automatically on two sides of the paper. A special counter may also be attached to register numbers of copies reproduced for different individuals or departments. This machine will print on paper ranging from 16-pound bond to 32-pound card stock and can also be used to print transparencies.

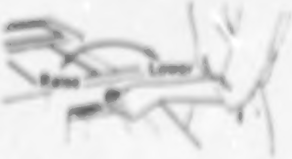
3M 209 (Infrared)

The 3M 209 typifies infrared copying machines for same-size copying of single sheets and bound materials. The step processes below apply to its operations:



1. Turn on the OFF-ON switch at the start of the day; turn off at end. Push in LOAD KNOB at start of day; pull out at end.

2. Adjust copy registration to keep the image centered up and down on the copy (eliminating a darkened top and bottom margin). One complete turn of the knob moves the image about ¼ inch.



3. For lighter copy, turn exposure dial toward LIGHTER; for a darker copy, turn toward DARKER. It is a good idea to check the first copy and readjust as necessary for lightness or darkness. The dial may be readjusted during the run to affect the quality of the next copy.

4. To make from one to twenty-five copies of any normal original, size 8½ by 11 inches to 8½ by 14 inches:

   a. Insert original face down in feed tray. Place paper edge flush against original guide. Original must be flat and free of staples or clips.

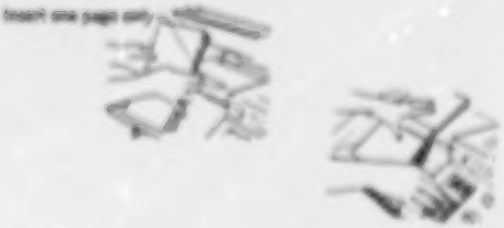
   b. Adjust counter dial for number of copies. Dial setting can be increased during the run.

   c. Press PUSH-TO-START copy button. Copies are automatically made and exited to bottom tray; originals exit into upper tray just before last copy is made.

5. To copy from books one page at a time, follow this procedure:

a. Push BOOK-COPY button.

b. Follow lighted instruction. Raise lid, insert only one page (as shown), close lid. Push button again.



c. Wait for and then follow the next lighted instruction. Raise lid, remove bound document, close lid. Push button again. One copy is automatically made and exited to tray.

Choosing a Duplicating System. Often a school has only one form of reproduction available, and there is no choice. Where a choice of method is available, or where equipment is about to be purchased the following factors should be considered:

- number of copies which will be required from each master;
- cost per copy;
- cost per master;
- speed and convenience of machine;
- reliability and servicing arrangements;
- technical skills needed to operate machine;
- quality of duplicates;
- possibility of colour reproduction.

(e) Slides. There are many methods of making slides.

- The Ektagraphic Visualmaker is a very useful piece of equipment which incorporates use of a camera. With the Visualmaker, slides can be made from illustrations in books, magazines, newspapers.
- Using a 35mm camera and colour slide film, a wide variety of original slides may be produced to meet your teaching needs. Many film processing firms include the cost of developing and mounting the slides in the cost of the film when it is purchased.
- Very simple slides with graphic resources can be made using transparency film of the type used to make transparencies by infrared (heat process) machines. Type or draw the resource on the transparency film and trim to size and mount. About 40 slides may be made with one sheet of film.
- Filmstrips which are no longer required may be cut-up and individual slides made. This is easier with filmstrips based on full frame rather than half frame photographs.

(f) Transparencies. There are several ways to make transparencies for use with overhead projectors.

Direct Processes, i.e. no special machine required.

- Writing on clear plastic with felt-tip pen. These pens may be water-based or soluable and come in a wide range of colours.
- Masking. Opaque material is used to temporarily cover sections of the illustration on the transparency. These overlays are often taped on in sections, and act as flaps which the teacher opens as he is showing it to the class.
- Transparent shapes and objects. Pieces of transparent material may be incorporated into the transparency or simply added by hand as the transparency is being shown.

Indirect Processes require special pieces of equipment. These allow very complex transparencies to be made.

- Heat-process transparencies. These allow original materials to be transferred by using a Thermofax Copy Machine. The original from which the transparency is made must be made from heat-absorbing materials. Ordinary ball-point pens, for example, will not work.
- Diazo transparencies involve the use of an amonia process and ultraviolet light. Effective transparencies can be made with this process.

The most common methods are the direct methods described above. Many teachers make their own transparencies and use them as an alternative to the chalkboard. Wide variety of design and colour can be obtained through use of coloured transparency sheets and coloured pens. Transparencies which should be preserved may be mounted on a cardboard frame and stored for future use.

Some projectors are equipped with a roll of clear plastic attached which may be wound or re-wound over the platform of the projector as required.

The film used for the different methods of transparency making differ. A special type of film is needed for indirect processes. This is usually more expensive so should not be used for hand-made transparencies if possible. Film used for hand-made transparencies may be re-used. Clean spirit-based pen marks with methylated spirits.

(g) Tape-Recordings. Audio-tapes may be purchased with content already recorded on them. It is also possible for teachers to develop original materials by:

- recording live, i.e. real people, voices, music;
- duplicating tapes or records already made;
- recording off-air, i.e. from a radio or television broadcast.

When making duplicates of tapes, it is important to check that the producers of the tape allow copying. Also if copying radio or television broadcasts ensure that no copyright restriction exists which would make it illegal.

The full range of recorders can be used for making your own tapes. The type of microphone chosen, will be determined by the situation. If interviewing an individual, a uni-directional microphone can give a good quality product. If recording a group discussion, the microphone built into some recorders (called a multi-directional microphone) can be most convenient. The best way to record music or voice that is already on a record, tape or on the radio or television, is by direct connecting cable between the radio or television and the recorder. This is possible with most tape recorders. With this method, no sound from the room in which the recording is made can be transferred to the tape. The quality of recording is therefore very good.

SECTION 6 - THE TEACHER ASSISTS STUDENTS TO USE INFORMATION RESOURCES

Contents

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Developing Information Location and Usage Skills

6.3 Promoting Student Resource Awareness and Usage

6.4 Supporting the School Library

SECTION 6

6.1 Introduction

As we have seen in the previous sections, there are many types of resources available through the school library. These are intended to be used by teachers and students to support the teaching/learning programme of the school.

It is important that information resources are used effectively by teachers and students.

Teachers need to be able to locate and use these resources either from the school library or from other libraries such as the public library. Students need to be assisted in developing lasting habits of learning through planned programmes devised by teachers, which instruct the students also using resources found both in and outside the school.

Some teachers will have access to teacher-librarians in their local areas, who are qualified in both teaching and librarianship. The teacher-librarian is able to assist teachers in developing programmes for effective student use of resources and libraries.

The teacher-librarian, when available, can assist or advise the teacher about the following:

(i) using the resources to their best potential in the teaching situation. Each teaching objective can be examined, and useful resources selected to achieve these purposes. The teacher-librarian can also assist the teacher in planning activities which utilise these resources.

(ii) developing student skills that will ensure effective use of library and information resources. The techniques of exacting and evaluating resources of all types is a major role of the teacher-librarian.

(iii) developing student awareness of the ways in which resources can be used by them for their own benefit. The teacher-librarian can assist students acquire a knowledge of the range of resources available to them and the skills in using these resources.

(iv) team-teaching with the teacher. The teacher and the teacher-librarian can develop a programme that encourages both formal learning in the subject being taught, and also, the practicing of necessary information skills.

The teacher-librarian may also be of assistance to the teacher in encouraging students to use the library for personal interest; for reading for enjoyment; for obtaining outside community resources. The role of the teacher-librarian is one of assisting, guiding or working with teachers and valuable results may be gained by working with this resource person if you are fortunate to have a teacher-librarian in your local area.

Although the teacher-librarian may be seen as a helpful source of information and advice, every teacher has the major responsibility for developing student skills. Library and resource use should be an important aspect of all teaching programmes. These may then be supported or built on by the teacher-librarian if one is available.

These skills should be gradually developed, dealing with only one skill at one time. Experts in education believe it is important that a new idea is introduced:

(i) in small, easily learnt sections, Each new aspect being introduced in a separate lesson.

(ii) in several ways, so that each student is able to learn by the best method for him or her.

(iii) in a context that has meaning to the student.

(iv) with opportunities for repeating the skill in different situations.

The implications behind these ideas are important:

(i) The teacher should teach skills that have relevance to the students needs and interests. It is helpful if the activity is seen to be important in the teaching/learning programme or for future use by the student.

(ii) Previously learnt skills should be constantly encouraged and practised in the learning situation. The teacher should expect to see these earlier skills demonstrated in learning activities. It is not enough to check an initial ability to perform an activity immediately after the skill or concept is learnt. Students need to repeat such skills in a variety of activities. Finally, the teacher should expect the skill to be demonstrated as an essential part of the thinking process in later learning activities.

(iii) The teacher should show students that the particular skill is considered important. One effective way of using this is to include this as part of the assessment of the subject.

The teacher has an important role in encouraging students to use libraries and resources, by:

(i) Helping students locate and use resources.

(ii) Promoting student awareness of the range of resources available for educational and personal use.

(iii) Supporting library activities and services through professional usage and example.

6.2 Developing Information Location and Usage Skills

The teacher needs to educate students in the ways in which information may be located or found in resources. Once these "retrieval" or location skills have been developed, the teacher should encourage the students to use the information in a useful and original way. This process is not complex when broken down into logical steps. It has been found that these steps are developmental: they follow a natural sequence which, if the student is introduced to them in order, will help the student easily attain the skills.

1. The Teacher Assists Students to Formulate Specific Information Requirements

(i) Teacher Planning

Before the teacher can introduce the students to these skills, careful preparation is needed. Students need clear directions about their learning goals. They must understand what they are trying to find out, and know the skills that the teacher requires them to use. This means the teacher must plan the learning programme to include goals or objectives the students must achieve.

The activities must be developed at a suitable student level. Students should be able to understand the concepts and the teacher's requirements. If they cannot comprehend these, students will have difficulty in answering questions set to assess their learning.

The teacher's requirements should be based on a careful review of the resources available. Student's should not be asked to find information on a topic when the available resources do not include such information. The teacher needs to evaluate the initial learning objectives and the resources to ensure they support each other.

(ii) Student Preparation

One of the most important aspects in the student's ability to use information, is that of understanding what questions are being asked and what information is to be found to answer these questions. Only when the student is aware of these requirements, can information resources be usefully consulted. The teacher plays the major role in helping students to understand the questions and the information required for the answers.

(1) the teacher examines the requirements of the topic with the students. Key points are highlighted so students are aware of the type of information they must find, and the steps they must take toward presenting their findings in the required format.

(2) the teacher asks the students to describe the procedures they might use, helping them to approach the procedures logically.

(3) the teacher could provide students with a simple sheet such as the "Search Sheet" printed on the following page. Students could write down the topic, underlining the key words which have already been identified as important. Having completed this analysis, the student is ready to look for resources and information on the specific topic.

SAMPLE SEARCH SHEET

Student Name: ______________________________

Topic Question: ______________________________
____
____
____
____

Possible Places Where Information May Be Found:
____
____
____
____

Resources Available in the School:

Books:-

Author: Title:

Pamphlet Materials:

Pictures:

Other Resources:

2. The Teacher Assists Students to Locate Relevant Resource Materials and Other Sources

Once the student has identified the key elements in the topic, the teacher should direct the student to consider the following questions which help locate information sources. Students might be asked to consider:

(i) What resource is best? They should think about such aspects as the need for up to date information; general or in-depth information; specialised information. From this students may decide to examine books, newspapers, magazines, reference works, photographic material, or a person for information. After considering these aspects the student should have a better idea on which type of resource will be most suitable. It may however, be that no particular format is more useful than another.

(ii) Where can I find that resource? The student then needs to consider where the particular resources or sources of information may be found. They may identify the school library, the local museum, a commercial firm, a person, etc. These should be noted down on the "search sheet" under "possible places where information may be found".

In developing student awareness of resources available, the teacher needs to introduce the student to these information sources. This presumes an awareness of such sources, which can be developed through visiting relevant community organisations to familiarise the students with the available services and information.

It is not enough for the student to know that a library has resources which may be helpful, the student must also know how to find those resources.

If there are teacher-librarians in the area, they can be consulted but every teacher needs to be familiar with the library and its procedures. Students need to see the teacher as a regular library user.

If students are to use information resources effectively they need to be

(1) familiar with the physical layout of the library; where the catalogue is; where reference resources are located; and where different types of resources are shelved.

(2) familiar with the way a catalogue works, or aware of the location guides in reference resources e.g. the index.

Each teacher needs to be able to assist the student in these procedures and encourage the students to use them whenever relevant. Students will gain confidence in using the wide range of available resources. Teachers may themselves find it necessary to learn about the procedures of libraries and other organisations.

3. The Teacher Assists Students to Identify Appropriate Content Within the Located Resource Materials

Having located some possible information sources, the student should then be ready to evaluate these to see if they suit the topic.

First, the student needs to use such location devices as the library catalogue. These should be listed on the "search sheet". The aim is to encourage the student to seek more than one information source, which will require a critical attitude in selecting a resource for a particular topic.

The "search sheet" assists this process, since it encourages the student to keep the topic in mind at all times during the information finding process. This sheet should be completed before the students seek the actual information resource. In this way, they will consider the total range of available resources, rather than the first one noticed. The student has a better idea of what can be used, and is more aware of the need to evaluate each resource.

The student needs to be aware of the location devices which may be found in information resouces, which help in quickly assessing the usefullness of particular resources.

When using a book or journal resource, the student should first examine the index of that work. An index is an alphabetical list of key words or topics covered in the book. The index directs the reader to the appropriate page or pages, where that specific topic is mentioned. The student needs to be aware of the key words which might be used. These should be introduced in the initial discussion of the topic.

To help the students use an index successfully, the teacher may need to provide some opportunities to examine the way indexes work. These should be provided before this skill is needed, and would involve the teacher-librarian if one is part of the teaching staff.

Some books do not contain indexes. Other books may have one, but will not list the key words which the student has identified. Students must be familiar therefore with a second avenue of information about a book's contents: The Contents Page. This is normally found at the front of the book. It is designed to detail the sections of the book, and may include details of the coverage of chapters. Others may merely indicate chapter titles and pages.

The student may find that the title and sub-title offer some information about the book's coverage. These may encourage the student to examine the book more closely.

When checking the usefullness of non-print resources, the student should be encouraged to practice similar techniques of checking the guides to these resources. Information booklets, scripts, tables of contents; titles and sub-titles should be used to obtain an idea of the coverage of a non-print resource.

Once the student has located a promising looking chapter or section in a book, the techniques of skimming can be used. This is the process of identifying key words or phrases that might indicate the coverage of the resource. By quickly skimming a page, the student can decide whether that resource is of use in the search for specific information. If it appears to be of little assistance, it can be rejected and a new resource can be examined.

Skimming involves basic reading techniques that most literate adults unconsciously use in their reading for information. In students, this technique often needs conscious attention. Students need to develop these skills so that they are able to be used at an early stage in their lives. Skimming should not be used where students' reading ability is poorly developed.

The process of skimming may be broken down into eight basic steps:

(i) The student should keep the topic or question in mind while skimming the material. Key words should be carefully highlighted.

(ii) The title of the section should be read, in order to gain some idea of the emphasis taken by the author.

(iii) The first paragraph of the passage should be read, to determine the focus of the author's writing.

(iv) The student should then rapidly skim through the section, looking for the mention of key words or main ideas.

(v) Sub-headings should be noted as a useful guide to aspects being covered.

(vi) The topic sentence of each paragraph, which indicates the main idea in that paragraph, should be identified and read.

(vii) The concluding paragraph should be read.

(viii) Pictures or diagrams should be examined to help in understanding the main ideas.

After this brief examination, if the student considers the resource is not helping to answer the question, a new resource should be analysed using the same techniques.

4. The Teacher Assists Students to Understand the Information Found

When the student has identified a relevant resource by skimming through the section of the book, the following steps may be used to help the student understand the given information.

The student needs to carefully examine the information and relate it to the particular question which must be answered. Having examined the information by skimming, the student has gained an approximate idea of the coverage.

Before re-examining the resource thoroughly, the student needs to re-read the original topic question. The student, with this in mind, should then review the information and ask "what are the main ideas being presented?"

By considering both the original question and the information resource coverage, the student should be able to identify parts of the question that may be answered by reading the particular resource.

These parts of the question should be noted down on the search sheet. While the resource is being read, they will direct the student toward relevant and important facts.

The resources then must be READ thoroughly.

The reading process involves the following steps;

(i) The student reads the resource that was skimmed to identify answers to the question.

(ii) If the resource can be marked, points of significance may be underlined to enable later revision of the section.

(iii) If the resource cannot be marked, notes are taken by the student identifying the important points and the page reference to the resource.

(iv) The student at all times must remember the question which has to be answered.

(v) After reading the section, the student should assess the degree of success achieved in answering the question. The student may also, after considering the information read wish to query certain parts of the resource or its presentation with the teacher as well as in the answer to the question. The student should be aware of the need to evaluate each resource and its information, rather than accepting the information on face value. This helps each student become more discriminating in using resources.

These techniques, although originally developed for print resources, may be readily used in locating information in non-print resources. When skimming, the student should use any helpful print guides that provide general information about the coverage. After deciding that a resource may be worth "reading" the student needs to organise the setting up of equipment or other materials required. The resource should then be carefully examined and viewed by the student. When a key point is highlighted the student may wish to stop the presentation in order to note down the information.

5. The Teacher Assists the Student to Record the Information Concisely

Note-taking is one of the most important steps in this process. One objective of education is to develop independent, objective thinkers. Rote learning: the copying of someone's ideas, does not assist the student in developing as an independent, objective thinker.

Note-taking is extended to be part of this development. Students learn to select ideas that are relevant without "plagiarising" or copying another person's specific writings on these ideas.

Note-taking concentrates on developing a logical process and is a useful method of summarising the information which the student has collected. It assists also with revision of the topic.

The note-taking process may be divided into:

(i) The source of information is identified. The student should note down the author, title and location details of the book. This helps the student to revise the source at a later date if it is necessary and may also be used by the student to construct a list of references used.

(ii) The relevant portion of the resource is noted. The chapter or section, or page numbers are identified. This information enables the student to re-read any information that later needs to be confirmed.

(iii) The first relevant paragraph is summarised. There are two ways of summarising each relevant paragraph. The first method is a simple one that students should follow when first developing note-taking skills:

(a) Read the first paragraph.
(b) Identify the major topic sentence if the paragraph helps to answer the specified topic.
(c) The students should then suggest a title for the paragraph based on the content of the topic sentence. This should be written down and underlined.
(d) The main facts, points or ideas that are then identified in the paragraph should be listed in a sentence. The students should describe these points in their own words.
(e) This procedure is repeated for the next paragraph.

(iv) The second method of note-taking can be used following the first one.

The student reads the paragraph. The information that is provided should be considered and understood.

The students may then summarise their understanding of the information by writing down, in their own words, the important facts.

In some cases it is necessary for the student to note down actual quotations from the reading. These should be placed in "quotation marks" to indicate that they have been taken directly from the author's writing and the exact page noted with the author's name in brackets at the end of the quotation. These may be helpful to the students in reminding them about the information or in illustrating a point they wish to make. Such use of the author's works should be kept to a minimum.

Techniques of note-taking require close supervision by the teacher, particularly when the student is being first introduced to these skills. Opportunities to practice these skills are both necessary and constructive. Practice sessions should be included in the topics that are being explored.

Students should also be encouraged to take pride in their work. Their notes should show a carefully developed line of thought. Work should be tidy, well-laid out, easy to read, and should be logical in its presentation. Students should be encouraged to use sub-headings to make their work more understandable.

6. The Teacher Assists Students to Produce a "Report" of Related Information

The final step in this process of finding information is that of reporting the findings. The most common method that students use for this purpose is a written summary. It should be noted that this is only one of many ways in which students might show an understanding of a topic.

Techniques which might also be used include:

(i) Creating a non-print format that demonstrates an understanding of the topic. e.g. the students might develop a poster, a sound recording, a set of photographs or slides based on the students' understanding of the topic.

(ii) Students might also demonstrate their comprehension through class talks, dramatisations or creation of a storybook or magazine.

These procedures help to demonstrate the students' awareness of the topic. The individual cannot easily talk about, or demonstrate a topic until it is thoroughly understood. Such presentations help the teacher to identify areas requiring more attention.

The written report needs close supervision. Students should be encouraged to use only essential information and discouraged from using every bit of information they can locate.

7. The Teacher Assists Students to Develop Selectivity and Discrimination in the Information Resources Used

Throughout this process, the teacher is an important guide in the development of student skills. As the students develop good study skills, they should become more aware of the importance of choosing relevant information resources.

The teacher helps the students to develop this discrimination by requiring students to select only relevant resources. Apart from introducing students to the selection and evaluation skills discussed, the teacher should ask students to list resources that assisted them in their search for information.

These may then be referred to by the teacher if in doubt about the originality of student work and encourages students to use a range of resources and to acknowledge sources of information.

Teachers encourage students in this development by setting standards for the students to achieve.

6.3 Promoting Student Resource Awareness and Usage

As well as the development of information location and usage skills, there are other library related activities that benefit from teacher encouragement. The teacher is an important influence on students. So too is teacher interest in an activity. Each teacher has a responsibility to consider the ways in which students would be helped in developing habits useful in later life. Libraries hold many useful resources which the student may need in the future. The teacher can encourage students toward good literacy and library skills by many methods.

1. The Teacher Encourages Students to Use All Sections of the Library Collection

It is important for the teacher to demonstrate the value of all types of resources. Libraries, especially school libraries, are concerned with developing the student in many ways by providing opportunities·

(i) to develop academically

(ii) to read about personal problems and interests of other characters and people, to help their own personal development

(iii) to examine ways of living and methods of enjoying oneself

(iv) to find out about unknown subjects and interests

(v) to understand the range of possible future careers and work available.

These are general aspects of information that the individual may gain from using the library's resources. The benefits from using such resources may also result in better student reading skills and greater student awareness of the individual's place in the world. The student's general knowledge and awareness may also be improved.

Students need to be encouraged to use library resources and the teacher is an important person in providing such encouragement.

The teacher demonstrates an enthusiastic knowledge of the resources available in the community and the school library.

The teacher should show students the variety of resources. This may be done by including different types of resources in the relevant lessons, showing that interesting resources are available for personal and informational purposes. Through example, the teacher is providing the students with varied methods of experiencing the value of resources.

It is important that before using a resource, the teacher carefully evaluates the usefullness of the item.

Once the teacher feels students are familiar with the resources relating to particular subject areas being taught, it is useful to explore other interests that may encourage students to read. If the teacher has special hobbies or experiences these may be the starting point for promoting student awareness of the relevant resources. The teacher could borrow resources on his own interests/ hobbies and talk about the interest and the resource. The personal involvement of the teacher is important in encouraging students to explore information resources.

By using this type of promotion, teachers indicate that they value and enjoy using information, that types of resources are useful for personal interests, and that the library is a valuable source of information. These are all important attitudes which should be promoted by teachers to students.

2. The Teacher Encourages the Development of Good Reading Habits in Students

There are two roles for the teacher in encouraging good student reading habits. First, an awareness of the types of relevant and interesting resources available to the student is very important. Teachers who read these materials as well as know they are in the library show the students that teachers value reading skills.

Second, the teacher can help the student select resources that suit the student's needs and interests. Each teacher needs to be familiar with the resources and the students. The teacher endeavours to challenge each student with interesting reading material suited to the student's particular needs and interests.

The student's reading progress needs to be watched closely by the teacher. This may mean talking to the students about the resources they are reading at that time or providing time in class for students to read whatever they wish. These resources might include fiction books, factual resources, comics, magazines or other reading matter. Students should be given the opportunity to enjoy reading while they are still developing reading skills.

A very successful method in many places has been for schools to set aside a special time in each day when every person in the school reads. This gives the students time to read, and the chance to find reading enjoyable and interesting and because adults also read at that time, they demonstrate the value of the reading habit.

The teacher needs to encourage the students to talk about resources they have read and enjoyed. In this way, the students are giving other students an idea of what resources are available. They are also showing that they value the chance to read and enjoy interesting materials.

Another way of encouraging reading for enjoyment is for the teacher to bring interesting materials into the classroom. This gives students the chance to browse through those resources when they have spare time and because the resources are actually in the classroom, there can be a greater chance of the student selecting something to read. The teacher needs to be aware of the student's reading abilities and interests in order to select interesting and attractive resources for this purpose.

If the school has a library, the teacher should give the students time to browse. Browsing along library shelves is often a good way of finding interesting items. The teacher is giving the students an opportunity to see interesting reading resources in a relaxed atmosphere. The students should then be encouraged to borrow resources they would like to read.

The teacher can promote student interest in reading by reading a part or all of the book. Another method is to talk briefly about the book giving the students the opportunity to find out about challenging and different resources which they might not choose to read themselves. The teacher is offering the students opportunities to develop reading skills and to grow more aware of important and interesting issues.

The teacher needs to encourage students to explore a wide range of reading resources. Students, for example, may not be familiar with the newspaper. This can be used and enjoyed in class. The teacher might bring a copy to the classroom so that the students can read it when they have finished their class work.

The teacher can introduce students to different styles of writing:

Poetry for enjoyment, tales of people, fictional works, should all be used by the teacher in a relaxed setting. The students then learn to associate these forms with pleasant experiences. The teacher should avoid "teaching enjoyment". The student understanding of the techniques of writing also needs to be gradually developed. The teacher might do this by reading a very interesting book to or with the class. The class could then discuss why that particular resource was especially enjoyable. Perhaps the characters were very well described or the plot was well developed.

3. The Teacher Encourages the Class to Use the Library Collection to Obtain Information

As well as showing a personal knowledge of the library resources and encouraging students to read for enjoyment, the teacher should promote reading for information.

Information is important to students in developing their awareness of the world they live in. They need to become familiar with the range of resources that may give information. As well as knowing that these resources exist, the student needs to know how to use them. The teacher should encourage students to use resources to find information. This information may concern the learning programme or may be for the student's own personal interest.

Some useful techniques of promoting student use of resources to find information are:

(i) Learning activities should be structured so that students are given the chance to work with a wide range of resources. By using the "search sheet" idea mentioned earlier, for example, the teacher can encourage the students to explore newspapers, magazines, non-print resources and books on a topic. This increases the student's awareness of the types of available resources. These opportunities also develop usage skills. The student learns how to "read" photographs, films, etc. for information. These activities are very helpful for this purpose, since the teacher can guide the students.

(ii) Students should be encouraged to select areas of personal interest for assignments. The teacher should give the students some choice as to which particular problems/topics they wish to examine for an assignment.

(iii) Each student should be expected to look at different resources during the information search. This encourages the student to locate resources of individual appeal.

(iv) A range of resources that may be of interest to students should be housed in the classroom and be easily located by the students. This is a very helpful way of making students more aware of different topics of interest, and different resources on a topic.

(v) Students should be encouraged to talk about subjects in which they are interested. The interest of a student may stimulate other students to look at resources on that topic. The student might like to talk to students; talk about resources that are available on that topic, or prepare a small display of resources related to that hobby or interest. These are all methods of encouraging student interest in reading for new information.

(vi) When the teacher wishes to start a new topic or talk about special events, persons or places, resources on that topic can be displayed in the classroom. Students are often very interested in new areas of learning, and may be interested to look at resources on these areas.

Students are encouraged to discuss resources acquired from libraries

The opportunity to talk about new experiences and new resources is an important one for students. These sessions also stimulate student interest in the topic concerned. The teacher needs to be aware of the need to encourage student promotion of resources. One method of promoting this is to ask students to introduce resources they have found in the library.

The teacher might require all students to introduce a resource on an area of study, and to outline its usefullness. This also helps the student in learning to evaluate resources.

Classroom displays of interesting resources which the students have located can be arranged. This allows the students to browse through the resources and to examine those that appeal to them.

A small discussion session in which the students are able to talk about a good resource they have borrowed from the library is also of interest to the students. The teacher needs to also contribute the resources that they have enjoyed.

The discussion of these resources helps the students to see the library as an interesting and worthwhile place to visit. Students also become more aware of the types of available resources.

Students May be Encouraged to List Interesting and Useful Library Resources

When preparing assignments, the teacher should require students to list resources they found useful. These may be used as guides by other students, as well as giving the teacher an idea of which resources the students like to use. The teacher may use the students' lists for later students. This shows the students that their evaluations are considered useful.

Reading for enjoyment can also be encouraged through the student use of lists. Students should be encouraged to keep records of books they enjoyed reading. These records could be kept as a class file which other students may use as a guide to reading. Students may also make up lists of books that younger children may enjoy, based on their own reading.

Students might be encouraged to display resources they found enjoyable. These could be mounted with small descriptions which the students have written.

The Teacher Should Encourage Students to Extend Their Range of Reading Interests

An important aspect of development is that of becoming aware of the world and of people. This can be greatly helped by the reading of literature in a wide range of areas. Every student should be encouraged to read widely and deeply on many subjects guided by the teacher.

Every teacher has knowledge of the student's ability, interests and reading habits and can use this knowledge to guide and encourage the students to read challenging and interesting material.

The teacher, as an important person in the student's life, needs to show an awareness of literature by talking about books that may interest the students. The books can be briefly introduced , possibly reading aloud a particular interesting part and showing the illustrations.

The teacher may set aside a time to read to the students, with a different book chosen each week, and then left for the students to finish. This is a good way of introducing new and different literature to students.

Students might be encouraged to make up their own books. These might be about an information topic. The students may be required to read widely on the topic and then to create their own version which could be placed in the library as a new resource on the topic.

Students might be asked to present a "mystery topic". This could be something that other students have not spoken about and each student could try to find the most interesting unknown subject to talk about.

Students can be given opportunities to find out about new interests. Guest speakers, excursions, visits by organisations and resource presentations can be used by the teacher to stimulate student interest in new subject areas or topics.

Finally, the teacher should be regarded as a major example of wide reading interests. The students should see the teacher as a person who is interested in reading at both student and adult levels.

Students Should be Encouraged to Use Community Information Resources

It is very important that the students become aware of community information resources which may be used now but also in their future lives. Students should be aware of where information can be obtained when it is needed.

The teacher needs to introduce the students to the concept of community information resources. This might be done through student visits to organisations, such as the public library. The teacher might invite guest speakers, for example, officials from government departments. Resource presentations on helpful community resources such as Agricultural Extension Work might be shown.

The teacher could encourage students to think about their community and the resources to be found there. These should be incorporated into classroom activities so that students gain experience in using these resources while they are still being educated. Learning activites could include fieldwork activities where students talk to community members or organisations.

The teacher needs to indicate to students that use of community resources is expected. This can be introduced when the "search sheet" is first used with the class. The students might be required to list resources they used that were not from the school.

Students could also help in building a resource file about community information resources and evaluate the usefullness of such resources for particular purposes. Relevant resources could be added to the file and for future use by students.

Students Should be Encouraged to Use and Borrow from Public Libraries

It is important that students be introduced to public libraries before they leave school. They need to feel "at home" in the public library, and to feel confident of locating information in that library.

The teacher can arrange to visit the public library with the students. The public librarian is usually happy to talk to the students about using the library and borrowing the resources. This introduces the student to other people who may act as a resource person in the community. The student will also feel more confident of coping with the public library's borrowing procedures.

During this visit the students can be introduced to the special sections of the library's collection which may be of particular interest to the students.

This school-community co-operation is an important feature of education. This helps the school to obtain maximum use of available resources.

SECTION 6

6.4 Supporting the School Library

The teacher can contribute in a great many ways toward encouraging student use of available resources and services. Each teacher needs to know how to use these resources and services before they can be introduced to the student.

To fully utilise the library, the teacher should:

(i) be familiar with library procedures

(ii) be aware of library resources that are useful for teaching purposes

(iii) be familiar with recreational and informational material

(iv) develop ways of promoting student use of the library resources

(v) encourage students to use the library for enjoyment.

The teacher can support the students' library use in two areas: the teaching subject approach and the personal approach.

Whenever the teacher is planning a new programme the teacher-librarian should be notified of the proposed topic. This helps the school library staff to prepare or plan for the student requests. Teachers and students will find searching for resources much more satisfactory when this planning is done.

If students have access to a library and may work in it, the teacher should give them opportunities to practice using the library. This helps the library staff and students in making the library resources more useable. Students should be given practice in locating resources in the library. This skill will need to be carefully developed and built on by the teacher and the teacher-librarian.

Students should be supervised by the teacher as they work with library resources. Good study skills should be continually promoted by the teacher. This helps the students to use the library and its resources in an effective and worthwhile manner. The teacher should watch the students to see that proper note-taking and note-making skills are being used. Students should be able to understand the resources they are using in the library. The teacher should watch the students to see that they are coping with the activity.

The activity requirements should be discussed with the teacher-librarian before the class goes to the library. The teacher should also have examined the resources to see that appropriate resources are available. Students should be guided in their activity so that they do not waste time.

The teacher should show an interest in library programmes. Reading promotion, displays, competitions and other activities should be supported by the teacher. Adults and students who wish to help organise a library programme will be welcomed by the teacher-librarian. Perhaps the teacher may need library staff assistance to run a classroom programme. This type of co-operation is a very important aspect of the effective school library.

The teacher, being a specialist in education, can help the library staff by previewing new resources in subject or special interest areas. The teacher can also advise the library staff of student interests and needs which assists the library staff to develop a collection relevant to the school's students. The teacher should be encouraged to evaluate the subject collection when selecting resources for the teaching programme. If new resources are needed, or existing ones are no longer helpful, the library staff should be advised to ensure the collection is relevant and up to date. If the teacher is interested in helping to evaluate new resources, the teacher should inform the library staff. They are usually pleased to have an expert opinion on the value of a resource for the school's educational programme.

The teacher-librarian may be helpful in developing good student library usage skills. The teacher can ask the teacher-librarian to help introduce these skills. The teacher-librarian may also know of useful resources that can be introduced to the students. In these ways, both teacher and teacher-librarian are able to contribute to the students' development.

SECTION 7 - THE TEACHER ENCOURAGES READING FOR PLEASURE

Contents

7.1 Teacher and Student Attitudes Towards Reading for Pleasure

7.2 Stimulation of Interest in Reading Activities

7.3 Assisting Students to Develop Selectivity and Discrimination

SECTION 7

7.1 Teacher and Student Attitudes Towards Reading for Pleasure

The Reading Experience -

> "To those who have learned the secret which transforms the printed page from abstract symbols into words which can carry great personal significance, reading becomes and remains a source of personal satisfaction for which there is no substitute. The initiated reader lives richly through books, experiencing adventures of the long ago or the future as easily as he can thrill to the sight of a breathtaking trapeze act or the throbbing sound of a powerful motor under his control. This "living through", this identification with the actors and their actions in books is what makes people today continue to read in spite of T.V., radio, movies and other competitors for their time.
>
> This enjoyment of reading, this identifying with the printed page emotionally as well as intellectually which characterizes the effective reader, does not necessarily occur automatically as the result of learning how to read. Only a relatively few fortunate young people discover the world of books for themselves. They are a constant delight to those who believe that love of reading is an important characteristic of a mature, educated adult. Unfortunately, such young people are few indeed.
>
> Most children and young people, even the academically able, must be led, guided, or even enticed into discovering the pleasures and profit that can be derived from books. Sometimes this discovery comes only after long and patient guidance from one or many adults. However the task is a

> challenging one to those who feel a sense of responsibility for bringing young people and books together."
> *(Pilgrim & McAllister, p. 1-2)*

Many teachers and librarians who have enjoyed reading for many years find it difficult to understand why some young people do not like reading and find no enjoyment in the process. The reasons for this are many and various. Some of these reasons may be:

(i) Many young people may lack the necessary reading skills;
(ii) Some parents may not be able to read themselves;
(iii) Some parents may not consider reading an important skill;
(iv) Many students' friends may consider playing sports as more important than being able to read.

If teachers and librarians wish to motivate students to read, then these efforts to be successful must be aimed at meeting some important personal needs of the individual student. Some of these personal needs may be:

(i) to be like someone he/she admires;
(ii) to reach certain academic goals;
(iii) to gain future employment;
(iv) to read about his interests in newspapers, magazines.

It is important that achievement in reading by the student to meet any of these personal needs be accompanied by recognition by his teachers, fellow students, his family and his friends.

The attitudes of teachers towards reading and the motivation of students to read are of prime importance. Teachers must themselves know books, read continuously and for enjoyment and convey this enthusiasm and enjoyment to students. Teachers also must know their students, their individual needs and ambitions, their interests and their family situation. Teachers must then be able to bring these two groups of knowledge together and join the right student to the right book for them personally.

The development of reading skills for each student is important but so is the outcome of reading - enjoyment and pleasure. It is difficult for the student to experience enjoyment and pleasure without being first able to read. This is where the techniques used by teachers in motivating students to read need careful consideration. Free reading sessions do not always provide enjoyment, particularly without guidance in selecting books of interest. Good children's books in hardcover editions do not always appeal to students.

Teachers need to develop a reading programme or reading practices based on a variety of techniques including emphasis on storytelling or reading aloud from familiar materials such as magazines, newspapers and paper cover books.

An American writer has devised the following table as a basis for a planned reading programme. The table lists the types of books enjoyed by American children at various stages of development. At the same time the table notes the characteristics of favourite story lines and with preferred types of books.

Teachers may wish to use this table to discuss the development of a table appropriate for the students they teach.

TABLE: Types of books enjoyed by children at various stages of development (based on *Children's literature: strategies of teaching* by R. Whitehead, Prentice Hall, 1968):

SUBJECT OF FAVOURITE STORIES	CHARACTERISTICS OF	
	STORY LINE	BOOK
Age: preschool Animal and nature stories Fairy tales (simple) Familiar people, things, settings Finger play verses Jingles Nursery rhymes Rhymes	Is repetitive in text. Demands some participation as in touching and naming. Enables child's name to be inserted for real characters. Is quite simple. Introduces poetry.	Is colourful, or has bold figures (if done in black and white) on every page. Has an attractive, sturdy cover and large type. Is lap size. Has occasional "pop-out" quality. Has more pictures than text. Is 24-48 pages in length.
Ages: six through eight Animals (pets and talking beasts) Fairy tales (simple) Familiar environment (family, play, school) Fanciful tales Humour and nonsense (slapstick) Mechanical devices (cars, tractors, etc.) Real-life stories	Has a real plot (suspense and action) Is fast-paced, with action. Is brief and can be completed in one sitting. Helps reader identify with the character. Is convincing and understandable. Is easy to read, with simple vocabulary, short sentences.	Is eye-catching. Has large, clear type. Has 25 per cent or more of page space given to illustrations. Coloured illustrations in preference to black and white. Synchronizes picture and text. Is 50 to 60 pages long, if fiction, less if non-fiction.

SUBJECT OF FAVOURITE STORIES	CHARACTERISTICS OF	
	STORY LINE	BOOK
Ages: nine through eleven	Has a vivid action plot. Has solid worth and appeal. Uses amusing words and names. Employs exaggeration and absurdity. Begins quickly. Concentrates on the conversations. Uses the characters to carry out the plot. Has action, atmosphere, and strong characterisation.	Is 100 pages or more in length. Has type that is neither too large nor too small. Has accurate illustrations that contribute to the book. Has uncluttered margins. Has open appearance and lively drawings. Uses sentences that are not too long nor involved.
Adventure Animals (wild or tame, real of fanciful, dog stories for boys, horse stories for girls) Biography Different countries and people History and historical fiction Humour Invention Mechanics Poetry Science and science experiments Sports and games (boys) Tall tales		
Ages: twelve through fourteen	Is fast moving, and forceful. Helps reader meet his personal problems. Stresses individuality. Is accurate and detailed, if non-fiction. Has sharply delineated characters. Has extensive plot and characterisation.	Has eye appeal. Is brief (a preference of boys). Has attractive illustrations (but they are not the primary reason for acceptance or rejection). Is designed basically to appeal to boys, although many books for girls alone are available.
Adventure and mystery Biography Career stories (girls) Fantasy History Humour Myths, Legends, hero tales People of other lands Romance (girls) Science and science fiction (boys) Sports (boys) World affairs		

SECTION 7

7.2 Stimulation of Interest in Reading Activities

There are four general guidelines in any programme or activities to motivate students to read:

(i) A regular time should be set aside each day for reading for enjoyment and pleasure. Time time period should be adequate 20-30 minutes; it should not be cancelled; it should not be withdrawn due to a student's misconduct; it should be a time looked forward to by students.

(ii) Assisting students in selecting books for reading should be planned carefully; providing a sufficient range of choice with assistance from the school librarian and other teachers; providing books to meet students' needs and interests; providing attractive, well presented books at the "right" reading levels.

(iii) Helping students to explore the storyline, the plot, the characters, the theme of what they read depending on their level of ability, understanding and reading skill; by asking questions; by making wrong statements about storyline to stimulate discussion; by making comparisons with other stories.

(iv) Using relevant types of book materials which students are familiar with and which they bring themselves to class; newspapers; magazines; paperbound books; comics; pictures.

There are a number of techniques which can be used in stimulating students' interest in reading. These techniques are designed to provide enjoyment and pleasure for both students and teachers and a relaxed classroom atmosphere which students hopefully will associate with reading.

The main techniques are:

1. Reading Aloud
2. Storytelling
3. Book Talks
4. Dramatic Art
5. Creative Art

1. Reading Aloud

All children and many older people enjoy listening to a book of story read aloud in a pleasant voice. Reading aloud helps students:

(i) to discover books - younger children or children who do not read well have the opportunity of making contact with books they may not be able to read; children who can read well may read a book they thought previously was too difficult, too large or unattractive in appearance.

(ii) to extend knowledge - much general information about particular historical periods, famous people or customs can be derived from fiction books; students can be stimulated by a poem or a story which will start them on a search for information.

(iii) to develop appreciation for a good story, for interesting characters, for a good plot or for beautiful language; students can be helped in their language development by the extension of their vocabulary and their understanding of the meaning and use of words.

(iv) to have fun and to be creative - students can develop their sense of humour; be stimulated to act, to dance, to create through drawing or modelling the characters or scenes they hear about.

Reading aloud well, takes practice. You need to be a good reader yourself with a clear, pleasant voice. Here are some points for consideration when preparing and presenting a reading aloud session:

Preparing:

- Use books to meet students needs and interests and which you have also enjoyed.
- Consult the librarian about availability of other relevant titles in order to build up your knowledge.
- Consult students for their choices. Don't hesitate to use well-known and favourite titles more than once a term.

Presenting:

- Give title and author of book. Show cover.
- Be relaxed and hold book comfortably.
- Use clear enunciation.
- Define new words where relevant.
- Use natural voice with expression for narrative, lower or raise voice for variety of different characters.
- Maintain eye contact with group.
- Do not use exaggerated facial expression or gestures which can detract from story.
- If serialising, stop at a carefully selected interesting part.
- Be enthusiastic in reading!

Sharing a Picture Book

When sharing a picture book, particularly with young children, there are some additional points to consider:

- Select a book with a good story and attractive illustrations which in themselves tell the story. It should be a brief story to keep their limited attention span and one you know well.

- Share the book as you read, either by holding it sideways facing the children and at an angle that you can read or read and then show the illustrations. Make sure the book is held when showing at a height and angle that the children can see the illustrations.
- Be prepared to listen to children's remarks and questions. Point out in the illustrations the important points of the story. Occasionally, and with experience, you can personalise the story by referring to similar experience of children in the group.
- Again, be enthusiastic!

2. Storytelling

Storytelling has a long history. In most countries of the world stories have been told aloud, around fires, under trees, as older people have handed down to younger people - an understanding of the beginning of the world, tales of heroic acts, legends and myths. In most countries, there are people who have become "tellers of tales". The art of storytelling requires skill, experience and a natural ability.

Well-known storytellers in the community can be invited as guests to your classroom; such storytellers may be teachers, children's librarians, or elders of the community. It may be possible to find writers of stories, of poetry, of legends, who will be prepared to tell their stories to groups of children. Children themselves are natural storytellers and sessions where they act as storyteller to other children should be encouraged.

It is important to provide follow-up to storytelling by ensuring there are copies of the stories, poetry available in your school library as well as drawing students' attention to other related information resources in your school library.

3. Book Talks

There are many ways of helping students talk about books, films, pictures or music which they have enjoyed. There are many benefits for students in such presentations including:

- developing an ability to speak before a group;
- developing self-confidence;
- learning to organise ideas to be presented to others;
- learning to plan the presentation for a particular time period;
- developing good speech habits.

Some techniques which may be used

(i) student oral book report, with the students telling the class about a book that he/she has read;

(ii) sharing session, a number of students talking about books, perhaps all of a particular type, e.g. mystery;

(iii) round table discussion, students talking about the same book they have all read;

(iv) listening to a taped book/film review, then open discussion by students, comparing their ideas and those of the reviewer about the book or film;

(v) character talks, given by students about their favourite characters;

(vi) subject/topic talks, when students talk about interesting places, inventions, historical figures they have read about;

(vii) character impersonations by a student, with other students guessing the character;

(viii) acting out a scene from a story by students and other students and teachers guessing the title and author.

In most of the above techniques the following points should be emphasized:

- to use the techniques which will draw students towards reading, not away from reading;

- . to encourage and assist students in such presentations, avoiding embarrassment and failure for the student and giving student recognition for achievement;
- . to use a varied approach, remembering each student has different needs, abilities and interests.

Some teachers seem to use the technique of book talks by individual students more often than other techniques. If you do this it is suggested that students should be encouraged to achieve variety in such talks to prevent students being bored or turned away from reading for enjoyment. Help students to talk about - best-liked characters, funniest/saddest part of the story; most exciting part; the time and place of the story; the plot.

Students can also develop aids such as pictures or drawings to illustrate their oral presentations. Some suggestions on such aids are made later in this Section.

4. Dramatic Art

Dramatisation of a story, a poem, an incident, or a character, is often a natural and enjoyable outcome of reading. Dramatisation may take the form of:

(i) play - informal dramatisation;
(ii) pantomime;
(iii) puppet plays.

Benefits for students involved in dramatisation can be:

- . learning to co-operate and interact, to appreciate other students' abilities and capacities;
- . learning to evaluate performance whether in class, in a film or on the radio;
- . to reflect on stories, films and gain fresh or new insights into characters, plots, incidents;
- . to develop good speech and movements;
- . to have fun and enjoy themselves.

(i) Play

Informal play is a natural part of the school day and can be used to effect in the classroom or library. It can be either individual or group play. Individual play is found in natural movements during or following a story and can be enhanced by the use of music as children glide like ghosts or hop like birds or squeal like pigs. Again play can take the form of acting out the daily activities of family and school such as looking after the animals, caring for the baby, doing the washing, tending the garden. Young children particularly will use play naturally to tell a rhyme and other children will then use their own ideas for acting out the rhyme in response.

(ii) Pantomime

Pantomime, acting out and interpreting plot, characters and situations in a story, can be used with a wide age range of students. For younger children the story must be simple, usually with a single incident. For older children stories with more complex situations can be used.

With younger children, simple rhymes and riddles are easy to start with as the children will naturally act them out without very much prompting. In some situations, it will be best to suggest a group of children act out the riddle simultaneously. As children gain confidence in pantomime it will be possible to suggest pantomime in pairs with situations requiring two characters, e.g. mother and child, pig and dog, etc.

Class groups may be involved in a pantomime play or tableau made up of a series of "still pictures" or with a narration the pantomime may become a series of mimed scenes. Well-known stories are usually the most successful in pantomime.

It is useful to collect a number of "props" - aids for dressing up as characters, e.g.

- a paper crown for a king or queen;
- a piece of wood for a spear;
- a box of shells for money or wealth;
- coloured cloth for a cloak;
- a carton and grass for a home.

Pantomime is meant to be enjoyed as well as to extend students' knowledge and understanding.

(iii) Puppet Plays

The simplest type of puppets are hand manipulated artificial figures meant to represent characters in plays and stories. Hand puppets can be simply made with not too much time taken in the process.

First you need to select a story or play which can be made into a puppet play. A successful puppet play requires:

- a lot of dialogue and some monologue (one person talking);
- a good plot with plenty of action;
- easily recognizable characters for children at whatever age or grade;
- speeches or conversations that children can translate into their own language easily.

Second you need to make the puppets. The following materials are useful for this process:

- balls, bars of soap, wooden spoons;
- fruit, seed pods, pine cones, vegetables;
- milk cartons, tin cans;
- wood scraps, driftwood;
- paper bags, socks, newspapers.

Some examples of puppets which are easy to make:

Lion - old sock, pieces of cloth, buttons.
- stuff the sock with cloth, sew on strips of cloth for ears, sew on buttons for eyes, nose, mouth, add strips of cloth to make a mane.

Man - wooden spoon, tin cans of different sizes, string or wire, paper.
- paint a face on large wodden spoon, put large can over spoon handle for body, tie on smaller cans for two arms, use spoon handle for one leg by tying on smaller cans, then tie on smaller cans for other leg. Make a paper hat.

Warrior - paper bag, with square flat base, paint on crayons, cloth/feather scraps.
- draw a face on bag, making mouth opening face on fold of bag at base, dress the rest of the bag in cloth scraps or feathers. Glue on feathers or grass for hair.

Third you need a stage for the puppets to act upon. You can use a table turned on its side, a chair or even an open doorway. You can use a piece of cloth for a curtain, stretched across table or chair legs or the open doorway. You can use a large box or crate but these need anchoring with stones to keep them in place. Whatever you use for a stage can be decorated with paper or cardboard painted cut-outs.

To be successful puppet plays need:
- rehersals at manipulating puppets;
- time for children to develop "voices" for their character and to learn their parts;

- some atmosphere music;
- audience involvement.

5. Creative Art

The use of creative arts can add a further dimension to the other techniques suggested in this section and also provide additional opportunities particularly for individual students to extend and enrich their knowledge and appreciation of books and reading.

Some creative arts activities which are easy to introduce and provide are:

(i) Paint and paper - for students' illustration of books; making book markers illustrating characters, story incidents; making a mural (large wall picture) of a story; making posters about an author or a group of books.

(ii) Jigsaw Puzzles - mounting bookjackets or original drawings of story scenes on heavy cardboard, then cutting these up to form pieces of jigsaw and placing in a box or envelope. These puzzles can be used after reading the story or in encouraging students to read the story after putting the jigsaw together.

(iii) Mobiles - character cutouts, illustrations, objects in the story can be mounted, tied to light string or thread and hung from a frame. The frame can be made from a real tree branch, an old umbrella stripped to bare ribs, or a wire coathanger. The mobile can be used as an expression of the main points in a story.

(iv) Story Subject Maps - can be drawn on large sheets of paper or cardboard to illustrate the setting of a story; a journey made in exploration; the life story of a famous person; the place/town/house in which certain incidents of a story occur.

(v) Games - Book title quizzes can be created by completing a half given book title; book character quizzes, by naming the main character in a particular book; crossword puzzles with clues based on titles, authors, characters, incidents of books. These games can be designed by students as well as teachers and librarians.

Special Activities

As well as utilising these techniques in helping students to enjoy books and reading, these and other techniques can be used in special activities during the school year. Such special activities can be:

- Education Week
- Children's Book Week
- Library Week
- National Days
- South Pacific Week
- Parents and Friends Day

In all these activities, whether celebrating national or regional events, the work of students can be displayed and students can be involved in preparation for and participation in the events. Such preparation and participation provide excellent opportunities for recognition of students before their fellow students, teachers and parents.

Information from the following text has been used in this Section.

Robert Whitehead. Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1968.

SECTION 7

7.3 Assisting Students to Develop Selectivity and Discrimination

Students need the assistance of teachers to develop a process and method for their selection of reading materials.

Teachers are aware that students needs and interests are important factors in the selection of reading materials for students. However, the students would find it difficult to formally describe their needs although they would find it easier to describe their interests. Teachers need to help students to understand they have needs which are difficult to express. Needs, such as:

- security, physical, emotional and intellectual;
- love and achievement;
- acceptance as a person both individually and in a group;
- play or fun and change;
- beauty and order or harmony.

Students can be helped to see that they have such needs by hearing about other young people of their own age who have such needs. Stories and films can demonstrate these needs and teachers can help students discuss them and establish such needs in the minds of students as guidelines to assist them in selecting reading materials which could help them live out these needs through the characters of the story. Students can be helped to discuss the stories or films against such a list of needs and asking are some of these needs found in the book I have been reading. In this way students are being asked to evaluate what they are reading against some standards or criteria.

As well as the standards of considering students needs when selecting books, students should be made aware of the standards of good writing. These standards include evaluation of:

- characters in the story;
- theme or what the story is about;
- plot or the action of the story;
- style, the way a story is presented, including the language.

Some questions to ask on these standards are:

Characters - are they credible? convincing? real flesh and blood? are they stereotypes? do they grow and change? does the reader think they "know" them? are they memorable?

Theme - is the theme implied or openly stated? does it support the action of the story?

Plot - is there plenty of action in the story? is there suspense? excitement? conflict?

Style - is the language clear? does the story "flow"? is the vocabulary rich? is the book "hard to put down"? is there humour or beauty of expression?

The Table reproduced in the previous Section 7.1 which sets out the types of books enjoyed by children at various stages of development should be reconsidered here in relation to assisting students develop various measures to evaluate their selection of reading materials. Of assistance also in this development is the following list of questions for students adapted from a list devised by an American librarian, Sara Srygley. When selecting books consider:

1. Is the subject matter or story appropriate for my level? Is it readable, can I understand it easily?

2. Will it interest me?

3. For factual materials, is it dependable information, accurate, up-to-date?

4. For imaginative material, does it provide opportunities for me to understand new ideas, attitudes, insights?

5. Is the style appropriate to the type of book? Is the story skilfully told? Does the presentation of information encourage clarity of explanation, respect for facts, objective rather than subjective or biased information?

6. Does it have a purpose? e.g. understanding of our country and its development? understanding of people in other countries? understanding of facts and methods of science? appreciation of music, poetry, literature? recognition of my personal ability, interests or problems? insight into the feelings and problems of other people?

7. What personal values and needs does the book meet?

8. Is the format satisfactory e.g. is the physical appearance of the book interesting? is the binding attractive? is the book well designed? are the illustrations appropriate?

9. Is the book better than books on the same topic or of the same type I have read previously?

A further developed list of criteria, this time for non-book materials can assist the teacher in helping students develop standards of discriminating in selecting general reading, listening and viewing materials.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF NONBOOK MATERIALS

POINTS OF QUALITY (Accept)	POINTS OF INFERIORITY (Reject)
LOOK FOR *AUTHENTICITY*	
Accurate facts	Inaccurate facts
Facts impartially presented	Facts distorted by bias
Up-to-date information	Fake revised version: date only changed, no up-dating of contents
Other acceptable works of producer	Consistent rejection of other works of producer
APPROPRIATENESS	
Vocabulary at user's level	Vocabulary too easy or difficult
Concepts at user's level	Concepts too easy or difficult
Useful data	Extraneous data
Media-subject correlation (e.g., art prints to art, specimens to science)	Media does not add to subject communication
Titles, captions, etc. related to subject	Titles, captions, etc. confuse subject concepts
Narration, dialogue, sound effects related to subject	Narration, dialogue, sound effects unrelated to subject
Individual and/or group use suitability	Limited individual and/or group use suitability
SCOPE	
Full coverage as indicated	Gaps in coverage
Superior concept development by this means	Better concept development by other means
Content to satisfy demands for current subjects	Irrelevance to current topics
INTEREST	
Relationship to user's experience	No relationship to user's cultural environment
Intellectual challenge	No intellectual challenge
Curiosity satisfaction	No satisfactory answers
Credibility	Implausibility
Imagination appeal	Prosaic presentation
Human appeal	Negative human values
Sensory appeal	No stimulation
ORGANIZATION	
Logical development	Confused development; excessive repetition
Pertinence of all sequences	Unrelated sequences
Balance in use of narration and dialogue; music and sound effects; background elements	Ineffective or overpowering use of the same elements

POINTS OF QUALITY (Accept)	POINTS OF INFERIORITY (Reject)
TECHNICAL ASPECTS	
Tone fidelity	Tone distortion
Clarity	Extraneous sounds, visuals too detailed
Intelligibility	Difficulty in following image and/or sound
In-focus pictures	Fuzzy out-of-focus pictures
True size relationships	Unreal size relationships
Unified composition	Confused composition
Effective color use	Color is less effective than black and white
Complete synchronization of sound and image	Uneven synchronization of sound and image
SPECIAL FEATURES	
Descriptive notes, teachers and/or users guide	Absence of useful notes, guides
Pertinent accompanying material	Unrelated materials packaged together
PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS	
Ease in handling, for user, for storage	Difficulty in handling
Minimum instruction for individual use	Special training requirements for use
Attractive packaging	Unattractive packaging
Durability	Flimsy construction
Ease of repair	Difficulty in repairing damage
LIBRARY POTENTIAL	
Relevancy that promotes communication	No furthering of communication
Flexibility for many effective uses	Features which limit use
SELECTION AIDS	
Recommendation in evaluation sources	Rejection in evaluation sources
COST	
Conformity to budget	Too costly for budget
No less expense for satisfactory substitutes	Satisfactory substitutes cheaper
Inexpensive or already purchased equipment	Expensive equipment needed
Economy if purchased	Greater expense to rent
Average supplemental costs for replacement, repair, physical processing, storage	Too expensive to replace, repair, process for use

FROM: *Hicks, W.B. and Tillin, A.M. Developing Multi-Media Libraries. N.Y., Bowker, 1970. pp. 16-18.*

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SOUTH PACIFIC REGION

PILOT PROJECT ON SCHOOL LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

- Course for Teacher Trainees who wish to take school librarianship as a major in their Teacher Training Course

Course for Teacher Trainees Who Wish to Take School Librarianship as a Major in Their Teacher Training Course

Introduction

As the effective operation of a school library, the selection of resources, the building of a library collection and the provision of information services to staff and students is clearly essential in teaching and learning, this course has been developed as a major subject unit within Diploma of Teaching and Bachelor of Education courses.

(i) Entry Requirement: Students would be teachers-in-training.

(ii) Purpose of Course: This course is oriented to the basic training of a teacher librarian for both primary and secondary schools in the South Pacific Region.

(iii) Time Required: In-depth treatment and consolidation of all sections of the course would require 220 hours. The allocation of hours may be influenced by the stage of development of school libraries in a particular country, and the educational entry level of course participants.

(iv) Utilisation of This Course: The programme outlined will usually be organised as a weekly lecture and workshop (2-3 hours) over three academic years or on a similar basis to other major subject units.

1. Aims of the Course

This course aims to provide basic education and training for student teachers who wish to take school librarianship as a major course of study in their teacher training course, and on completion of teacher training to work as a school librarian responsible for the development of library service in the school.

2. Objectives

On completion of the course, the student will be able to:

2.1 Appreciate and understand the use of information in teaching and learning.

2.2 Apply educational theory and practice to school library and information service in order to support and enrich the school's educational programme.

2.3 Assist students and staff in the use of information.

2.4 Analyse and utilise institutional and non-institutional information sources, and build a library collection to meet information needs and services for staff and students.

2.5 Understand the role and functions of the school library and the role and tasks of teacher librarians in relation to other types of libraries and information workers.

2.6 Select, evaluate and utilise library and information resources in the school's teaching/learning programme.

2.7 Develop, organise and manage school library and information service to support the school's educational aims.

2.8 Provide resources and services which will develop students' reading, listening and viewing abilities, and interests in reading, listening and viewing for pleasure.

3.A. Course Content - Summary

Section 1	The Role of Information Resources in Teaching and Learning	Objective: 1, 2, 8
Section 2	Information Resources and Services	Objective: 4, 5, 6, 8
Section 3	The School Library, an Overview	Objective: 5
Section 4	Selection, Evaluation of Information Resources for Schools	Objective: 4, 6, 8
Section 5	Using Information Resources	Objective: 3, 4, 8
Section 6	The School Library, Organisation and Management	Objective: 5, 7

3.B Course Content - Detail

Section 1: The Role of Information Resources in Teaching and Learning

1.1 What is information?

1.2 Teaching and learning

1.3 Teaching and Learning in Schools

1.4 Information resources

Section 2: Information Resources and Services

2.1 Information and resources

2.2 Information resources, print and non-print

2.3 Information resources - their creation and availability

2.4 People as information resources

2.5 Institutional resources

Section 3: The School Library, An Overview

3.1 Aims and objectives of education

3.2 Methods of organisation of instruction

3.3 Development of school library service

3.4 School libraries - aims and functions

3.5 School library staff

Section 4: Selection, Evaluation of Information Resources for School

4.1 Selection criteria

4.2 Selection tools and aids for schools

4.3 Building a school library collection

4.4 Selection of curriculum resources

4.5 Selection of information resources for general and personal interests.

4.6 Audiovisual materials and equipment

4.7 The school library and the development of reading, listening and viewing levels

Section 5: Using Information Resources

5.1 Information resources and their use

5.2 Basic reference works

5.3 Reference collections

5.4 Compiling information resource lists

5.5 Services for teachers

5.6 Services for students

5.7 Extension services

5.8 Special Activities

Section 6: The School Library - Organisation and Management

6.1 Physical facilities

6.2 Acquisition of procedures and routines

6.3 Organisation of procedures and routines

6.4 Circulation of information resources

6.5 Library operational procedures

6.6 Library promotional procedures

COURSE II

UNIT I The Role of Information Resources in Teaching and Learning

INTRODUCTION

This unit is concerned with THE ROLE OF INFORMATION RESOURCES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING. The unit is divided into 4 sections:

1. What is information?
2. Teaching and learning;
3. Teaching and learning in schools;
4. Information resources.

The section What is Information? explores the concept of information as an important and valuable resource used by all members of our society on a daily basis. It considers the concept of the evolution of information to the present situation known as the information explosion, as well as considering tho relationship between information and society.

The section Teaching and Learning examines the factors which influence an individual's learning. These factors include motivation, past experience, maturity, activity, practice, reinforcement and individual differences. The section also considers some of the situations in which learning takes place. These include the home and family, the community, the peer group, information agencies and the school.

The section Teaching and Learning in Schools discusses some of the strategies which may be used by the teacher in the teaching/learning environment. These include the exposition approach, the use of textbooks and the discovery or inquiry method.

The section Information Resources introduces the range and variety of information resources which can be used in teaching/learning environments, particularly in the primary and secondary school. These information resources become a focal point of other units in the course, and are studied in much greater detail in those units.

This unit aims at linking your studies in education with an introduction to information resources: their nature, use and organisation which is further developed in later units. Throughout these units, the emphasis is on the school, but not overlooking the place of the school library in the total information network.

1.1 WHAT IS INFORMATION?

We often read that we are living in an Information Age, and statements such as Information is our most valuable resource are commonly heard. In school, information resources are considered to be an important aspect of the teaching and learning process. All schools and teachers make use of information resources; perhaps just a single textbook or a wide variety of resources to improve teaching and learning.

When you hear someone use the word, information, of what do you think? What are some other words that you might use, which mean the same thing to you?

Some of the words which you might have thought of are:

books
gossip
computers
listening
data
speaking
newspapers
knowledge
communication
library
facts

Perhaps you thought of some other words. The word, information, is used in a variety of ways and means different things to different people. However, all of the words listed above can help us to understand just what information is, and how the word is used, especially in relation to libraries and schools.

Information depends upon data or facts, and other forms of knowledge. These are the building blocks of information, but knowing a set of facts is not in itself information. Information involves more than just facts. It also involves communication. For data or facts to become information, they must be put into a form that can be communicated to others. Information involves speaking, reading, looking, listening and writing.

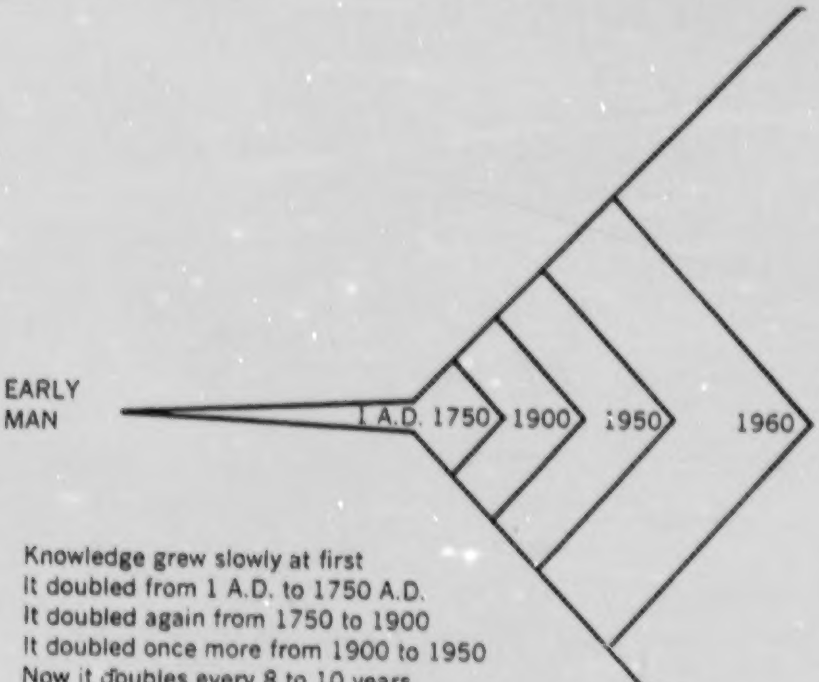
Information is data or knowledge put into a physical form that can be used for communication, such as a written record, a spoken record or a visual record.

The physical forms into which information is placed are often called information resources. In schools, the terms instructional resources or teaching resources are often used instead of information resources. Information resources can be books, newspapers, tape recordings, films, maps, charts or a variety of similar resource materials.

So that people may have access to particular information resources which they might require at a particular time, information agencies are established. Information agencies are institutions that acquire information resources such as books, films, newspapers or pictures. After the information resources are acquired by the agency, they are organised so that people using the information agency can locate the specific information resource or piece of information that they need. Information agencies also help people to interpret or understand the information that is housed in the agency. There is a wide variety of information agencies. Some of these deal with information on a very specific topic such as a travel agent. Other agencies such as museums, art galleries and libraries have information on a wide variety of topics. In a school, the school library is the information agency that acquires, organises and interprets the information resources to meet the information needs of the students and the teachers of the school.

The era in which we live is often called the information age, and the amount of information available is described as an information explosion.

Each day, in Europe alone, 1000 book titles are published. On a world scale, scientific and technical literature grows at about 60 million pages a year. Information resources designed for use in schools are also growing at a rapid rate. It is estimated that the number of textbooks has increased by 200% in the past 20 years, and that 16mm films have increased by 600% and filmstrips by 800%. *(Woodbury, 1979, p18)*. The rapid growth of information and knowledge is something that our ancestors did not have to deal with to the same extent that we must. Throughout most of mankind's existence, information has grown very slowly. Parents could teach their children about the world as they knew it, with the assurance that the world in which their children grew up would be much the same. Today we can no longer teach our children about the world as we know it, and expect that they will grow up in a similar world. In fact it is very likely that their world will be vastly different from the world as we know it. Today the amount of knowledge doubles every eight years.



Knowledge grew slowly at first
It doubled from 1 A.D. to 1750 A.D.
It doubled again from 1750 to 1900
It doubled once more from 1900 to 1950
Now it doubles every 8 to 10 years

The Encyclopaedia: A Resource for Creative Teaching and Independent Learning, 1968. p. 6

If there is to be twice as much information and knowledge in the world 8 years from now, it is important that students in schools learn the skills to access and utilise this information. Much of what we accept as facts today, may not be considered as true in the near future and may be replaced by new knowledge. Today students must have the skills to locate and utilise new information and the school library can be important agency in developing these skills.

A commonly accepted purpose of schools is to give students the skills and attitudes that will enable them to enter and compete successfully in the workforce. In today's world, information is an important aspect of the world of work. The ability to access and manipulate information is a skill that most workers will need.

In a number of countries, more workers are already employed in information related jobs than in any other type of work. It will be increasingly important for each country to develop a pool of workers who can work easily in information related jobs.

Some workers such as librarians, computer specialists, archivists, and journalists are in occupations that we commonly associate with information. However, there are many other workers whose jobs are concerned with the manipulation and use of information. These workers would include travel agents, lawyers, social workers, clerical workers and teachers. Can you think of some other workers in your community whose jobs are mainly concerned with information?

Schools need to ensure that students have access to a wide variety of information resources, and that they can utilise these resources to locate relevant information. Without these skills, students will find it difficult to occupy many positions in the modern workforce.

Information in Our Daily Lives

We use information in our daily lives. It might be gossip or where to have the best time on Saturday night, or who is selling the cheapest fish. Many of us also use more formal sources of information. In school, a student will need to locate resources to use in writing an essay. A teacher might need to locate current information about a topic that is to be presented in class. In the community, people often go to health clinics, social welfare agencies or legal aid agencies to obtain information that will help them with the problems of everyday life. At home, individual information needs might be about food prices, home repairs, the weather or gardening.

People need information about their work. Farmers want to know about the best ways to raise pigs, or about new insecticides. Fishermen need information on new boats and motors, and also market information about selling their catch. People in business and industry need information about world markets, currency exchange and consumer trends. We all need information about various government regulations and activities, and how they will affect our lives.

While many of us make use of information in our daily lives, most of us have received very little training in how to locate and utilise information and information resources. As an information sheet prepared by the Inner London Education Authority says:

> *It has become something of a cliche to say that we live in an Age of Information, or that we are witnessing an Information Explosion. However, although the terminology has entered easily into our language, many of our institutions (including schools) have yet to respond to the challenges that such an age confronts us with. The ability to locate, retrieve, select, organise, evaluate and communicate information will increasingly become a major component of what we understand the term, literacy, to mean; consequently such abilities will be crucial to each individual's quality of life. New developments in information and communication technologies are rapidly expanding our information environments, and also the range of skills required to exploit them; however, many pupils are still leaving school unable to manipulate even our most basic and traditional information sources.*

If students are to leave school with the ability to effectively utilise information in their daily lives, then schools must develop programmes that will enable them to develop the necessary skills and attitudes to do so.

Information and Society

Information has become an important component in possible solutions to many of our social and economic problems. Up to the Second World War academics, pure scientists and researchers were the main users of sophisticated information services, which were largely organised on a disciplinary basis.

During the period 1940-1960 governments established a number of large mission-oriented activities, such as the United States' activity to put a man on the moon. Such activities required information services organised not on a disciplinary basis but on the actual mission activity. As a result a number of large national special information services were developed.

In more recent years the large national and international issues are centred around the environment, the right to work, the right to national identity, sufficient food, better health care etc. Such issues require information services that can provide information based on a problem-oriented approach.

Not everyone in society has the same views as to whom should have access to all this information, and as to whether that information should be available without direct charges. Many individuals, including most librarians, view information as part of the social sphere of society. They see it as a public good, something that should be freely available to all who want to use it. Other individuals look at information as part of the economic sphere of society.

They consider that information is a commodity to be bought and sold in the market place. A third group views information as part of the political sphere and sees that control of information and information systems can form a power base. These individuals do not always want information made available to everyone in society.

As information continues to play an important role in the social, economic and political spheres of society, it is important that future citizens understand the nature and uses of information. All students and teachers need to develop the ability to effectively use information in schools, the workplace and at home.

1.2 TEACHING AND LEARNING

Schools are in the business of teaching and learning. The main purpose of schools in all societies is to enable students to learn something and the purpose of teachers in schools is to assist the students in that learning. Learning is the gaining of knowledge, or a skill by an individual. A teacher or a librarian cannot learn for a student; they can only assist that student to learn.

The process of helping someone to learn is called teaching. Teaching is a series of activities that are directed towards learners, by which the teacher assists the students to bring about specific changes. The teacher wants to assist the students in learning content, skills or attitude change, or a combination of all three. Teaching seems to work best when the teacher uses a variety of activities and a number of relevant examples. If the teacher has access to a wide range of information resources, the task of teaching can be performed more effectively than if the teacher has to work without such resources.

If the main role of teachers and school librarians is to assist students in learning, then it is important that teachers and school librarians understand how students learn.

Learning Theories

Many psychologists have developed theories on how individuals learn. There is often disagreement among psychologists on just how we learn, but all of the various learning theories seem to agree on certain principles. However, one theorist might place more importance on one princple than another. If school librarians are to assist students in learning, they should be aware of the basic principles of learning theory.

Motivation. Psychologists agree that when an individual is motivated, there is a much greater chance of learning taking place than when he/she is not motivated. There should be some need that the individual wishes to satisfy. On a basic level, this might be hunger, as used to motivate rats to learn tricks, or a more complicated need such as the need for approval. If learning is more effective when the student is motivated, then those assisting students to learn will want to have access to a variety of resources that can be used to help motivate students.

Past Experience. An individual's past experience has a great influence on learning. A student will relate what is being taught to his/her view of the world, and that view is formed by his/her past experience. Teachers can use these past experiences to contribute to learning by assisting the student to recall relevant past experiences which are related to the current learning situation. Often a teacher can use relevant information resources, such as a picture or a film, to help students recall past experiences.

Maturity. Most learning theorists agree that learning takes place more readily and is more meaningful when the activities involved in the teaching/learning process are appropriate to the learner's physical and mental level of maturity. It is therefore important that those individuals who are responsible for selecting information resources for a school, select resources which are appropriate for the level of maturity of the students in the school. If resources are either too advanced or too simple for the students, then learning will not be as efficient and effective as it could be.

Activity. Since learning is done by the student, and not accomplished by the teacher, psychologists agree that learning is an active process. A teacher who just talks to a class is usually not assisting in learning in a very effective way. For learning to really take place, the students must be actively involved in the process. Teachers need to be able to provide the student with experiences and exercises that will provide student activity and involvement. Activities that involve learning games, simulation exercises and similar approaches can all be used by the teacher to ensure that the student is not just a passive receiver of information.

Practice. Learning will be improved by the practice or repetition of activities. Meaningful practice has always been seen as an aid to learning. However, repetitive activities that are not seen as meaningful, or are boring to the student, can actually hinder the learning process. This means that teachers need to have access to a variety of information resources that will allow them to assist students to practice what they are learning in a variety of interesting and stimulating ways.

Reinforcement. Reinforcement of learning is important because there is a greater possibility that learning will take place when correct responses are immediately reinforced. Reinforcement of learning at regular intervals is also important. Some information resources, such as programmed learning resources, are designed to involve the student in immediate reinforcement. Other information resources, such as textbooks or filmstrips, often contain sections or activities designed to reinforce the student's learning. Teachers can use these resources to help facilitate learning.

Individual Differences. Whilst the basic principles of learning apply to all individuals, it is important to remember that all individuals differ. We are not all the same. Individuals differ in mental and physical ability. An individual may also progress differently in different subject areas; he/she may be better at art than at mathematics. Students often learn in their own way; one might learn easily by reading, while another might learn better by listening or viewing, or by a combination of all three. Learning situations need to be designed to take into account individual differences. The same teaching method or information resource might not be as effective for all members of a class. If a teacher has access to a wider variety of activities and resources, he/she will find it easier to cater for the differences in individual class members.

An awareness of the basic principles of learning theory can be used by teachers and school librarians when they are selecting information resources to use in a school, and when they are designing activities to use these resources.

Where Does Learning Take Place?

When the words teaching and learning are mentioned, people usually think of school. However, schools are only one place in the community where learning takes place. In fact, much of what an individual learns is not learned in school, but in other situations. These situations include the Home and Family, Community, Peer Group, Information Agencies.

Home and Family. A major source of any individual's knowledge comes from his/her family. Not only does the individual learn a variety of knowledge and skills from the family situation, but his/her value system is strongly affected by that of the family.

Community. An individual learns a great deal from the community, and those who live in it. He/she observes the way in which customs are observed; hears tales from the elders, and practices the manner in which the work of the community is carried out.

Peer Group. Individuals learn a great deal from their friends and people about their own age. Children are always teaching one another on the playground, on the beach or in the vegetable garden. The Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget, demonstrated that children learn a great deal from one another. Schools have often been slow to accept this fact. They frequently view the teaching/learning situation as one that only takes place between the teacher and the students. Learning activities which involve students helping each other to learn can be very effective in meeting learning objectives set by the teacher.

Information Agencies. A great deal of learning takes place through information agencies, or as they are sometimes called non-formal education agencies. Agencies such as museums, art galleries and libraries are used by individuals to develop their own interests or to answer specific school related questions. One of the roles of the public library is to be an informal education institution. It is an institution that allows learners to study the subject or topic of their choice, and to do so at their own pace.

If schools are to be effective agencies in assisting students in the learning process, then they must be aware of, and utilise the other places and individuals in society who are important to a student's learning. As one recent report on the education of young people has said:

> *The best learning environments for today's young people can be created through complementary arrangements and linkages among many individuals (including schools) in the community. In this way, educational responsibilities are distributed throughout the community to agencies and individuals who are able to provide relevant experiences and adolescents become reintegrated with other generations rather than being updated by the rest of the society in school.*
> *(Education of adolescents, 1976)*

School librarians need to be aware of the institutions and individuals in society who contribute to the learning process. They have a responsibility to make this information available to teachers and others involved in schools.

1.3 TEACHING AND LEARNING IN SCHOOLS

The emphasis in schools is now on learning rather than teaching. Students are encouraged to discover ideas or information themselves, to be curious seekers of knowledge rather than passive recipients of the teacher's word. One of the basic problems of educators is how to prepare students from different backgrounds and with different aptitudes to live in a world whose future characteristics cannot really be predicted. Methods of classroom teaching such as the following have to be considered.

Exposition Approach. In the past a highly successful method of teaching was for the teacher to present large amounts of information to the class. Students would then memorise this information. Whilst this method might be suitable for presenting some forms of information such as historical dates, it is not always useful to memorise a lot of information when we are living in times of rapid change. The practice or memorisation and the recitation of memorised information was inherited from an earlier period in our history. In that period there was less information to learn and much of it was likely to remain unchanged during a student's lifetime. It has been stated that five years after a student has left school, he/she has forgotten most of what was learned, and almost all the rest will be obsolete.

Textbooks. Textbooks are the most common information resources used in schools. They are a very useful summary of the content of a specific subject area and usually written at a level that is suitable for the particular group of students using the text. Textbooks should not be used in isolation from other information sources. A single textbook cannot keep up with new knowledge and changes in a subject area. A textbook may not discuss all aspects of a topic, it can be biased, or simply not present a complete view of the subject. Some teachers insist that students memorise the information in the textbook, but this has the same limitations as memorising the teacher's lecture. If the information is soon to be outdated, or if the student will forget the memorised information, there is little value in memorising the textbook. Textbooks can be a useful information resource in schools, but need to be supplemented with other resources.

Inquiry. Students learn a great deal in and out of school by using the discovery or inquiry method. They learn things for themselves. Children have a natural curiosity and want to learn. Instructional situations that make use of this curiosity will often be more successful than will passive situations. In a rapidly changing world, the ability to locate new information and discover new knowledge for yourself, is a more important skill than memorisation. As one scientist, R.W. Taylor, has said:

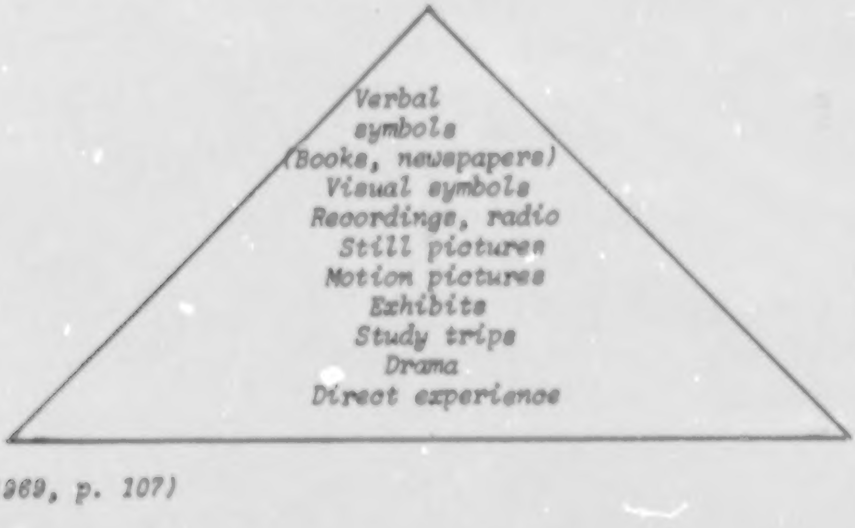
> *There is a general problem in all science courses, of ably teaching science so that it is an introduction to learning how to learn rather than teaching it as a collection of today's answers to questions which will be answered differently tomorrow. (Taylor, 1964, p. 191)*

Taylor's ideas would apply equally to non-science courses. Teachers need to be aware that the ability to learn and the ability to locate information are the most important skills that a student can develop.

1.4 INFORMATION RESOURCES

The importance of information in modern society and the rapid explosion of that information means that students need to be familiar with using a wide range of information resources. The basic problems of learning theory indicate that students learn by various experiences, and that exposure to a variety of information resources will enhance learning. Students learn a great deal from information resources outside of school: the radio, newspapers, books and tape recordings are all widely used by young people for entertainment, and also as a source of information about their world. These students are often more at home with some of the non-print resources such as tape recordings or the radio than they are with books. Schools can successfully incorporate these types of resources into the learning process.

One educator has shown that we can learn by a variety of experiences and information resources. He has placed these experiences and resources in order from the more direct to the more abstract. The resources at the top of the pyramid are considered more abstract than those at the bottom. A teacher or a school librarian needs to go as far down the pyramid as needed to ensure that learning takes place. However, they will also need to go higher up the pyramid to challenge students in their learning.



(Dale, 1969, p. 107)

Access to a variety of information resources will enable teachers and students to design meaningful learning experiences at an appropriate level.

Teachers can use a wide variety of resources in helping students learn a variety of skills, as well as teaching content. Some of the learning skills that we might want to teach children and some of the appropriate information resources that could be used are:

Skill	Appropriate Information Resource	
Visual skills	Mobiles	Mazes
	Maps	Models
	Films	Pictures
Vocabulary development	Poetry	Crossword puzzles
	Dictionaries	Newspapers
	Drama	Magazines
Mathematical skills	Puzzles	Games
		Measuring devices
Problem solving	Detective stories	Mysteries
	Codes	Games
Listening skills	Tape recordings	Phonograph records
	Radio	Storytelling

A variety of information resources can be utilised in schools to assist students in learning content, attitudes and skills.

We are living in an information age, and information is now one of the most important resources in society. The ability to locate and manipulate information is important, and all students need to develop this ability.

Teaching and learning take place in a variety of ways, both in and out of school. Information resources are used by individuals to assist in learning new material, and in the reinforcement of that learning. Librarians are important in schools because they are the agent who can acquire and organise the information resources needed by the school's students and staff. The school librarian is the individual in the school who can ensure that these resources are used in such a way that each individual can have his/her unique information needs met.

UNIT I

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TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercises after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete these exercises from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercise.

SECTION ONE (1.1)

1. In schools, what two words are often used to mean information resources?

2. What is meant by the following statements?

   Information as part of the social sphere
   Information as part of the economic sphere
   Information as part of the political sphere

SECTIONS TWO AND THREE (1.2, 1.3)

1. Define the terms teaching and learning.
   List at least six (6) basic principles of teaching and learning.

2. List and describe four (4) places other than the school where learning takes place.

3. Explain why textbooks should not be used in isolation from other resources.

SECTION FOUR (1.4)

Name at least two information resources that could be used to help students develop the following skills:

1. Visual skills;

2. Mathematical skills;

3. Vocabulary development;

4. Problem solving;

5. Listening skills.

COURSE II

UNIT II Information Resources and Services

INTRODUCTION

This unit examines THE NATURE AND RANGE OF INFORMATION RESOURCES AND SERVICES available to the members of society through the information network.

The unit is divided into 5 sections:

1. Information and resources;
2. Information resources;
3. Information resources - their creation and availability;
4. People as an information resource;
5. Institutional resources.

The section Information and Resources is an introduction designed to set the background for the other four sections.

The section Information Resources examines the nature and range of information resources. The section examines print and non-print resources, and defines each particular type of resource. The section also discusses the skills and background necessary to use information resources effectively.

The section Information Resources - Their Creation and Availability discusses the environment in which information resources, both print and non-print are generated by the information industry. The section also examines the ways in which the school librarian is able to identify and locate what information resources have been produced and are available. The section examines a wide range of published catalogues, bibliographies and lists which help identify and locate information resources.

The section People as an Information Resource deals briefly with the transfer of information through what is known as the oral tradition. The section also examines the place of the manuscript and other similar handwritten and unpublished forms of information resources.

The section Institutional Resources examines the range of information agencies operating in a society to form the information network. The section includes a study of both government and non-government agencies including private societies, tourist bureaus, cultural centres, museums, art galleries and archives repositories. There is also a detailed examination of the nature and role of the various types of libraries.

The unit aims to describe the information environment in which information resources are created and made available to the public through a variety of institutional and information agencies.

2.1 INFORMATION AND RESOURCES

Information and information resources are an integral part of the teaching/learning situation. Without information and the appropriate resources, the achievement of the school's aims and objectives will be difficult. The school has a major role in the education of children in society, and are therefore deeply involved in teaching and learning. Learning is the gaining of knowledge or a skill by an individual. A teacher or a school librarian cannot learn for a student. However, they can assist the student to learn by providing a supporting and stimulating environment. An integral part of that learning environment should be the provision of, and access to the widest range of information resources possible. This is part of the process of helping someone to learn.

The range of information resources available for inclusion in the school library is vast, and include some of the following:

> books, periodicals, pamphlets, newspapers, government reports, microforms, gramaphone records, sound tapes, slides, overhead transparencies, maps, charts, posters, videotapes.

You will examine these, and other information resources later in this unit. If you do not know some of these terms, you will learn about them in this unit. These resources are divided into two distinct groups, print and non-print. Each of these information resources, whether print or non-print, has a special place in the teaching/learning environment. You as a teacher and school librarian will need to become aware of the potential use of each information resource in the teaching/learning situation.

Within any community, there are a number of agencies concerned with the acquisition, storage, organisation and use of information. They are known as information agencies. We shall learn more about these information agencies in this unit.

Our interest in the network of information agencies is the school library. No school library can hope to buy, store and organise all the information resources which the teachers and students may require. This is why the school library participates in the information network, as such participation allows the school library to borrow resources from other information agencies. This borrowing process is known as interlibrary loan, and relies on all participating information agencies cooperating together.

There are many information agencies which are not libraries. They are known as information services. These information services are usually operated by government departments, agencies and statutory authorities, and other relevant agencies. Sometimes these services will overlap. Other institutions involved in the provision of information include museums, art galleries, archives repositories and cultural centres. Sometimes private societies and organisations such as the Red Cross; churches; clubs; or self-help groups will provide an information service.

You should be able to make a list of these agencies by consulting your local, regional and national telephone books. Sometimes the information you require, may not be available in a permanent physical form, and to obtain that information you will have to ask a person who can supply you with the necessary information. These people usually have specialist community knowledge in an area such as folklore, customs, medicine or local history. Therefore you must consider people and the value of their ability to supply unrecorded information as part of the total information network.

As part of the information network, a large number of libraries will be involved. These libraries can be divided into five broad categories as follows:

1. national libraries;
2. university and college libaries, sometimes jointly known as academic libraries;

3. public and community libraries;
4. special libraries;
5. school libraries.

You will examine the role and functions of each of these types of library in this unit. However, it is important to remember that the school library is an integral part of the total school community, and has an important role to play in the achievement of the school's aims and objectives and the education of students.

You must develop a sound and detailed knowledge of information, information resources and information agencies, as they relate to the school environment. The pattern of information, its availability through information resources and their availability through information agencies will vary from country to country. However, within the countries in the South Pacific, there is a similar pattern and you must become highly familiar with that pattern in relation to the school library and its place in the teaching/learning environment.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION ONE (2.1)

1. List at least four reasons as to why we use information.
2. List at least five skills a person may use in relation to the formulation and transmission of information.
3. Define the term information resource. List at least 8 types of information resource.
4. Name at least four information agencies in your community which are not libraries and give a brief description of each agency.

2.2 INFORMATION RESOURCES

There is a great range of information resources available to a school librarian, teachers and students. Not all resources will be found in a school library, due to differing patterns of provision. Some resources will be excluded through choice; others because there is not enough money to buy them. In the case of some non-print resources, they may be excluded due to lack of money to buy the machines or hardware needed to retrieve the information recorded on a non-print resource such as sound tape or a moving film. The decision as to which information resources will be selected for the school library should be a decision involving the school librarian, the teachers, the students, the parents and the school principal.

The range of information resources can be divided into two broad areas - print and non-print. In your studies, you may come across other terms such as book and non-book; or book and audio-visual. These are just terms to help in classifying the range of information resources into broad groups. The important thing is that you come to understand the total range available, and that you appreciate their value in the teaching/learning environment. We shall use the terms print and non-print.

Print information resources are varied in their range, their format, and the nature of information included. This means that they have different uses as sources of information. Print resources mainly consist of words in a printed format and are produced by printing machines or presses. Sometimes they will include photographs, pictures, maps, charts or diagrams which help explain the words, or the text as it is known.

Print resources have many advantages which you will discover during this course. However, there are also some disadvantages which you will also discover. To use print resources effectively, the school librarian, the teacher and student must:

1. be able to see;
2. have the necessary reading skills;
3. understand the language in which the text is written;
4. have a subject knowledge of the topic close to the content level at which the print resource has been written.

If any of the above is missing, then ineffective use will result, and the user will be wasting time. In some cases, it may be better to use a non-print information resource to meet the information needs of teachers and students.

Print resources are known by many names. Some of these are listed below. You will discover other more specialised print resources such as directories, dictionaries and indexes in Unit 5: Using Information Resources. If you find other print resources which are not listed, ask your tutor to explain them to you or use a dictionary and look up the meaning of the word used to describe them.

Books:

1. a print resource usually on a particular theme or topic written by one or more persons or organisations;
2. usually more than fifty pages in length, but often shorter especially if written for children;
3. they are referred to as hardback or paperback depending on their covers;
4. some have a dust jacket to protect their covers;
5. they vary in height, and are often grouped by height on the shelves - these groupings are octavo, quarto, folio and elephant.
6. another term often used in place of book is monograph.

Periodicals:

1. a print resource with a distinctive title and issued in parts;
2. usually related to a particular theme, subject area and/or a particular audience or group of readers;

3. parts are issued on a regular frequency e.g. weekly, monthly or quarterly (every three months) etc.: the frequency is usually stated on each part or issue;
4. parts are numbered, and may be given a running number by date of publication, or a volume and part number, or some other special system;
5. when first published, the publisher usually intends the periodical to continue indefinitely. However, sometimes they do stop or cease publication, and they may also change their name;
6. other terms often used which include periodicals are magazines, newspapers, and annuals;
7. another term often used in place of periodical is serial.

Pamphlets:

1. a print resource of at least five, but not more than forty eight pages;
2. usually not bound, but with paper covers;
3. usually on a single subject, but often issued in a series on a broad subject area.

Newspapers:

1. a print resource with a distinctive title, and issued on a regular basis in parts;
2. the frequency of the parts or issues is usually daily, twice or more a week, weekly or even fortnightly;
3. concerned with current up-to-date information to meet the needs of the user group;
4. may be general such as the Papua New Guinea Post Courier or specialist such as many sporting and religious newspapers;
5. usually cheap in cost in relation to other print information reosurces if they are sold.

Telephone Books:

1. a specialised print resource issued usually on an annual basis;
2. produced and published by the organisation administering telephone and communications in a geographic area, usually a government department or agency;
3. a list of all telephone subscribers giving their name, address and telephone number;
4. useful for identifying details about government and its organisation, as well as for details of the commercial world.

Government Reports:

1. a specialised form of print resource usually published in a book form;
2. the range of topics and subjects covered will reflect government interest, activities, and current issues;
3. usually highly authoritative and accurate;
4. frequency of publication will vary;
5. form part of the total publishing programme of a government, whether local, national, regional or international;
6. usually available free, or at low cost, as these publications are heavily subsidised by government.

Church Publications:

1. a specialist print resource published in either book, periodical, newspaper or pamphlet form;
2. the range of topics and subjects covered is largely religious, but also concerned with informing people and improving the quality of life in such areas as housing, health, welfare, agriculture and education;
3. often written in simple language, presented in a low cost format, and available in local dialects and languages;
4. usually cheap, and often distributed free.

With changes in information technology, some information is no longer available to the user in a print format. Even though the information is the same, it is presented in an alternative form known as microform. This format is used for a number of reasons:

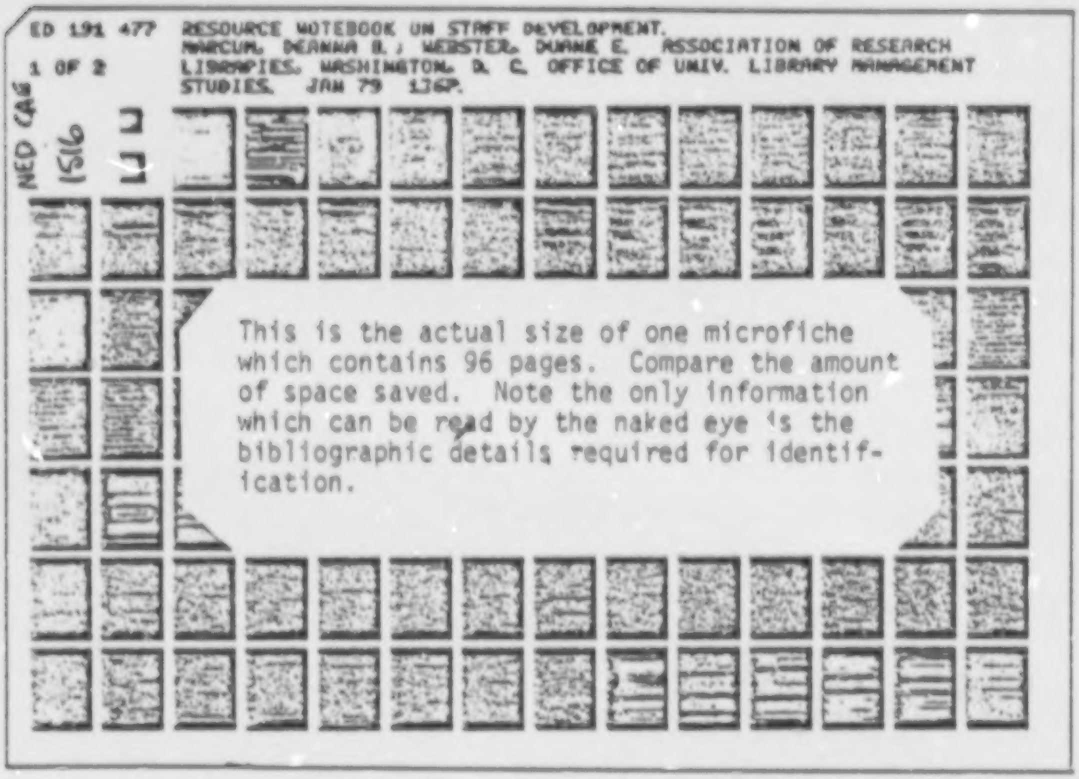
1. preservation of resources where constant use may cause their deterioration e.g. newspapers;
2. copying of an item where it is unique e.g. items found in archives, and largely of a manuscript nature;
3. limited publication e.g. a run of 100 copies of a research report;
4. ease of transfer of information throughout the world, due to reduced postage costs and resultant deduction of delay, as air mail instead of surface mail can be used;
5. reduction in amount of storage space in a library.

A microform is a minature reproduction of printed or other graphic resources which cannot be used without magnification. Therefore to retrieve the information, the user needs to use an appropriate machine or piece of hardware. These machines are known as readers, as the images on the microform cannot be read by the naked eye. Some readers are small and can be held in the hand, operated by batteries, whilst others are large and need electrical power to operate them.

Microform is of two major types:

(a) microfiche - a microreproduction on a flat sheet of film;
(b) microfilm - a microreproduction on a roll of film which may be presented on a reel to reel basis or in a cartridge form.

One microfiche measuring 14.5 cm x 10 cm contains 96 pages of text.



ED 191 477 RESOURCE NOTEBOOK ON STAFF DEVELOPMENT.
MARCUM, DEANNA B.; WEBSTER, DUANE E. ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH
1 OF 2 LIBRARIES, WASHINGTON, D. C. OFFICE OF UNIV. LIBRARY MANAGEMENT
STUDIES. JAN 79 136P.

This is the actual size of one microfiche which contains 96 pages. Compare the amount of space saved. Note the only information which can be read by the naked eye is the bibliographic details required for identification.

From this you can realise that microform may have some advantages and some disadvantages when information is presented to the user in this format. In schools, microform use is limited at present, but may change in the next few years. Some people call microform, a non print information resource as it is presented on film. However, the information has normally first been produced on paper. Microform therefore is an alternative source to paper in some cases.

You have now become further aware of the range of print information resources. Can you now understand why we rejected the term book and used the term print? Yes, you are correct that the term print is an all embracing term; book is too narrow to be used as an all embracing term. Perhaps you are wondering if there is an all embracing term which includes all print and non-print terms. Librarians and information workers have suggested many. One which has wide use in the library and information profession is document. However, some people prefer to use the term resources as we have done, as it seems more relevant in a teaching/learning environment.

Non-print information resources are large in number and can be subdivided or classified into a number of groupings. These groupings will vary according to how the subdivision or classification has been constructed. It is important that you are aware of the total range of non-print resources available, and that you appreciate their value in the teaching/learning environment. Remember you may not have some of these non-print resources in your school library or even in your country. However, during your working lifetime, they could well be in your school. In addition, with changes and developments in information technology, new formats for non-print resources may become available.

The following is one attempt at a classification of non-print resources;

1. Sound recordings;
2. Visual images - still;
3. Visual images - moving;
4. Visual images with sound;
5. Artefacts.

N.B. This classification and the following definition have been adapted from: GILBERT, L.A. Non-book materials: their bibliographic control - a proposed computer system for the cataloguing of audio-visual materials in the United Kingdom, L.A. Gilbert and J.W. Wright, London: National Council for Educational Technology, 1971.

Sound Recordings

(a) Gramaphone record - a recording of sound on a disc; information must be retrieved by using a machine; comes in various speeds e.g. 45 or $33^{1}/_{3}$ rpm (revolutions per minute on the turntable). Also known as phonodisc;

(b) Sound tape - a recording of sound on magnetic tape; information must be retrieved by using a machine, either a tape recorder or a tape cassette player; may be carried on an open reel to reel basis, or packaged in a cassette or cartridge format.

In some cases, the sound recording will be transmitted through the radio system, either at the local, national or regional levels. Due to copyright and other problems, sometimes it is not possible to make a copy of the programme at the time of transmission, however, many people will consider the radio as an information resource. Radio is really a mechanism through which information is transmitted, and due to its nature, can reach a large number of people at one time. In some countries, the radio is used to transmit educational programmes to schools, and copies of those programmes are often made available to schools in sound tape cassette format.

Visual images - still

These can be divided into two groups:

(a) those visible to the naked eye (non-projected);
(b) those which need a machine to effectively retrieve the information (projected).

(a) Projected:

- (i) Slide - a small unit of transparent film containing an image, usually mounted in either cardboard or plastic format, usually 2" x 2" coloured, or black and white and designed for use in a slide viewer or projector;
- (ii) Filmstrip - a roll of film containing a succession of images designed to be viewed one at a time in a structured sequence, using a filmstrip viewer or projector;
- (iii) Transparency - a sheet, or combined set of sheets, of transparent material, carrying information, designed for use with an overhead projector.

(b) Non projected:

(i) Map - a flat representation of part or all of the earth's surface;

(ii) Chart - a flat sheet of geographic or other information presented in a tabular or diagrammatic manner e.g. charts of the oceans, rivers and the waterways are known as hydrographic charts;

(iii) Poster - a large single sheet of paper, usually printed, but sometimes written, on one side with an announcement or advertisement, for display on a wall or notice board;

(iv) Photograph - a perfect image or likeness of an object, nature or human being etc. on a flat sheet of paper; made by using a camera and then technical processing; may be colour, or black and white;

(v) Picture - a pictorial representation of a person, landscape, building etc. on canvas, paper or any other surface produced by painting, drawing or engraving;

(vi) Print - an exact copy of a photograph, a picture or similar medium, often with an accompanying text which makes the print suitable for study purposes;

(vii) Flash Card - a card having words, numerals or pictures designed for rapid identification, often in a sequential set, and may be with or without an integrated sound track.

Visual images - moving

(a) Film - film, bearing a sequence of images which create the illusion of motion when projected, and carried on an open reel to reel basis. Requires a projector to retrieve the information. Is available in a range of widths - 8 mm, Super 8, and 16mm which are normally used in schools, and 35mm which is normally used in cinemas and picture theatres;

(b) Film loop - an endless loop of motion picture film usually contained in a cassette. Requires special projector to retrieve the information which usually relates to a single concept or process or event e.g. the eruption of a volcano;

(c) Videotape - magnetic or other tape, carrying a series of television images which have been recorded magnetically and electronically. Videotape requires the use of a videotape player and a television monitor to retrieve the information which has been recorded. Videotape ranges in width from ½" to 2", and each tape width needs a separate machine, as tape widths are not normally compatible.

Videotape is also available in cassette form, and needs a videocassette recorder/player and a television monitor to retrieve the information.

A new form of video known as the videodisc is currently under development, and may soon supersede videotape as an information medium.

Film, film loop and videotape can be presented with an integral sound track, so that picture and sound are presented simultaneously. They would then fit into the category Visual images with sound.

Visual images with sound

These are basically the three types of information resource discussed under Visual images - moving to which an integral sound track has been added.

One other type which is an important resource in the teaching/learning environment is the tape slide or tape filmstrip.

(a) Tape slide - a set of slides which may be accompanied by an associated sound recording usually a sound tape, but sometimes a gramaphone record. A slide projector and a sound machine are needed to retrieve the information;

(b) Tape filmstrip - a filmstrip which may be accompanied by an associated sound recording as in the case of a tape slide sequence.

Artefacts

This is a broad term to include information resources which have a physical presence in their own right. They are particularly important in the school teaching/learning environment, and without them that environment may be very sterile. This group of information resources includes globes, relief models, models, dioramas and real objects, ofter referred to as realia.

(a) Globe - a sphere usually on a stand with a representation or a map of the earth.

(b) Relief Model - a three dimensional geographical map of the earth's surface.

(c) Model - a three dimensional representation of an object, either exact to size or to scale. Examples include parts of the human body, a fishing boat, a motor or a pump. Very useful to processes and relationships in the teaching/learning environment.

(d) Diorama - a scene reproduced in three dimensions by placing objects, figures in front of a representational background. Examples may include representation of a religious occasion, a feast, a local event or an historic occasion.

(e) Real objects - these are real objects or specimens, the majority of which usually come from the community in which the school is situated. Examples might be flowers, rocks, animals, artefacts used in ceremonies etc.

This is a very wide and far reaching listing and identification of information resources which the school librarian, teachers and students might find in a school library. Not all of these resources will be found in any one school library anywhere in the world. However, it is important to know they all exist, and how they can be used in the teaching/learning environment. Remember that in any community, it is important to share information resources, and that often the needs of teachers and students can be met by borrowing resources, both print and non-print from other information agencies in your community.

In the listing of print and non-print information resources, they have mostly been considered as individual sources, except in the case of the tape filmstrip sequence and the tape slide sequence. A trend in education has been the realisation that a package of carefully selected information resources is an effective teaching/learning mechanism. These packages are carefully constructed to meet specific educational aims and objectives, and are often designed and produced by teachers and the school librarian. They include a range of information resources and are known as kits. Sometimes they are known as multi-media kits or learning packages. One example of such a kit to be used in a teaching/learning situation about the geology of a country might include the following:

(a) teacher's guide to explain how to use the kit;
(b) a geological map of the country;
(c) sample of the major rock types found in the country;
(d) overhead transparencies to show geological formations above and below the ground;
(e) photographs of mining operations;
(f) government report on the future of mining in the country;
(g) tape slide sequence on conservation;
(h) worksheets for use by students;
(i) bibliography of other relevant information resources which could be consulted.

This is an example of a highly structured information kit designed to meet specific information needs of both teachers and students. The kit concept clearly demonstrates the need to use both print and non-print resources in order to meet information needs and also that information resources can complement each other on many occasions. As a school librarian, it will be your task to identify information needs of teachers and students; locate and supply information to assist the satisfaction of those needs, and then attempt to evaluate the quality and effectiveness of those resources supplied. At all times, it is important to recognise the individual differences which exist in the teachers and students you are serving.

Those individual differences can be met at an individual level. Firstly you will know all the teachers and the students you are attempting to serve. Secondly you will know what information resources are at your disposal. Thirdly, due to your education in teaching and school librarianship you will know ways to unite the teachers, the students and the information resources to meet individual differences. You will be aware of the value of each type of information resource, whether it be print or non-print, and how to relate each information resource to meet those individual differences.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION 2 (2.2)

1. List four requirements that students must have before they can use print information resources effectively.

2. Describe the characteristics of the following print resources: -

   (a) books;
   (b) periodicals;
   (c) pamphlets;
   (d) newspapers;
   (e) telephone books;
   (f) government reports;
   (g) church publications.

3. List five reasons why information may be presented in microform instead of a print format.

4. Define the following non-print information resource formats.

   (a) gramophone record;
   (b) sound tape;
   (c) transparency;
   (d) poster;
   (e) flash card;
   (f) videotape;
   (g) print;
   (h) tape slide;
   (i) model;
   (j) diorama;
   (k) multi-media kit;
   (l) film loop.

2.3 INFORMATION RESOURCES: THEIR CREATION AND AVAILABILITY

A variety of people and organisations are concerned with the creation of information resources, and making them available to the public. Each of these people or organisations has a special function to perform in the total information environment. Words which you may associate with the information environment include author, editor, bookshop, publisher or publishing house, translator, printer, binder, jobber, supply agency, media supplier and library. There are many others which you may know of in your own situation. Whatever their role, and whatever their financial reward, each has a specialist role to perform in creating and making information resources available to society at large.

When any information resource, whether print or non-print, is created at least one person is responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the resource. By the terms intellectual or artistic, we mean some person who has written the words, taken the photographs, recorded the sound, or drawn the pictures. The people or organisations are known by the nature of their contribution. Sometimes the name of the person is clearly defined, and they can be identified in their own right. This is known as personal authorship. In the case of a body or organisation, or society, you cannot identify each person's contribution, as they have become part of the team preparing the information resource. The term used to identify a group of people in relation to intellectual and artistic responsibility is known as corporate authorship. When you work in the school library information environment, you will come across many definitions which describe the functions relating to the intellectual and artistic content of information resources.

The following are some of those definitions. They have been adapted from a number of printed resources; the main one being:

Anglo-American cataloguing rules/edited by M. Gorman and P.W. Winkler. Chicago: American Library Association, 1978.

Each definition is relevant to a particular situation and together the terms form part of the total pattern which libraries and information agencies use to describe information resources held in their collections. Sometimes different words are used in describing the terms, but the following terms are understood at the international level. Perhaps you are able to find another definition for these terms which are listed. Compare them and think about them. You will realise they mean the same thing.

Author:
A person/or an organisation/instituion responsible for the intellectual content, or the artistic content of an information resource. The person may be known by another term, but he/she is responsible for the writing in a book, the talking on a sound tape, or the drawing in a set of drawings.

Sometimes this authorship is called personal, and this means we can identify the name of the person or persons responsible for the intellectual and/or artistic content. If you were to write a book, you would be known as an author, and this is referred to as personal authorship. When we cannot identify the names of the people responsible for authorship, the term corporate authorship is used. This means a corporate body is responsible.

Corporate body:
An organisation or group of persons that is identified by a particular name, and that acts, or may act as an entity. This means you cannot identify one or more persons who are responsible for the intellectual or artistic responsibility of a work. Examples of corporate bodies are associations, institutions, business firms, nonprofit enterprises, governments, government agencies, religious bodies, local churches and conferences.

Examples will be:

University of the South Pacific
Goroka Teachers College
Solomon Islands. Department of the Environment.
National Library of New Zealand
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
Tradewinds Hotel
Oceanic Christian Church.

When we talk about authorship, we need to remember that often one or more persons, or corporate bodies co-operate to create the work. This is known as joint authorship.

Joint Author:
A person and/or corporate body who joins with another person/or corporate body to produce a work in which the co-operators perform the same function. A man and a woman who join together to produce a book would be joint authors. Sometimes when people and/or corporate bodies co-operate with each other in the information environment, they are known by the term collaborator. Perhaps this term has other meanings to you, but in the library and information world, it has this special meaning.

Collaborator:
A person and/or a corporate body who works with one or more associates (another person and/or corporate body) to produce a work. All participants may make the same kind of contribution e.g. each is an author, or they may all be illustrators. This means they have shared the responsibility for the same function. In the information world, this is known as shared responsibility.

Sometimes in the preparation of a work, people and/or corporate bodies perform different functions. One may be the author, another may be the illustrator and another may be the translator. The type of contribution by these people and/or corporate body is known as mixed responsibility.

These terms shared responsibility and mixed responsibility need to be more closely defined.

Shared Responsibility:
The co-operation, collaboration and working together of two or more persons/corporate bodies who perform the same kind of activity in the creation of the intellectual or artistic content of a work. The contribution of each person or corporate body may be clearly identified. So in a book we can identify which chapters were written by one person, and which chapters were written by another person or corporate body. The name of each person and/or corporate body can be clearly identified with their intellectual or artistic content. The name of each person and/or corporate body, and their contribution will be given on the title page, the contents list or chapter headings. The nature of their contribution will also be clearly listed.

In some cases, it will not be possible to identify the individual contribution of each person and/or corporate body. They will have decided to combine their intellectual and artistic content, and share their participation. So this term shared responsibility means co-operating together to perform the same function such as writing, illustrating or drawing.

Mixed Responsibility:
This means many people and/or corporate bodies are responsible for the creation of a work. Somebody may be the author, someone else may be the illustrator, and someone else may be the translator, or may have some other clearly defined function. So in a work of mixed responsibility, it means co-operating together to perform different functions, and normally you can clearly identify the contribution of each person and/or corporate body, and clearly define that role such as author, illustrator, translator. You will come across other terms in the information world, and if you do not know the meaning of the term, consult a dictionary and/or ask a suitable person. Some of the terms can be defined as follows:

Compiler:

A person and/or corporate body which produces a work, or a collection by selecting and putting together matter from the works of various persons or bodies. An example is where one person selects twenty short stories, each written by a different author, and puts them together in one publication. Check the shelves in your school library or a public library to identify a compiled work.

Editor:

A person who prepares a work for publication, but is not responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the work. The editorial layout may be limited to the preparation of the work for the manufacturer or it may include supervision of the manufacturing, revision or elucidation of the text. Sometimes it may include the addition of an introduction, notes and other critical matter. For some publications, it may involve the technical direction of a staff of persons engaged in writing or compiling the text.

Illustrator:

A person who has the artistic ability to draw and make pictures which help explain or decorate the printed text. You will often find a children's book has both an author and illustrator.

Translator:

A person who translates from one language to another, or from an older form of a language into the modern form, more or less closely following the original.

There are many other terms which describe those responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of a work, particularly in relation to non-print resources. If you come across one of these terms and do not understand it, ask somebody or check the term in a dictionary, or some other reference book.

The intellectual and artistic content are only the first stage in the production of an information resource. Someone or an institution/organisation must take the financial responsibility involved in producing and distributing the information resource to the community at large. A range of people and organisations are involved. They can include the government, its departments and agencies; local societies and organisations; the church; academic institutions, private companies and other corporate bodies. The role of these organisations is to:

(a) organise the making or production of the resources;
(b) distribute and make the resources available to the community at large, either by selling, lending, hiring, giving away free, or using some other appropriate method.

The terms given to those involved in the production and distribution stage are numerous. Sometimes they are relevant to print resources and sometimes only to non-print resources. On some occasions, the term can be applied to both print and non-print resources. Some of the terms are listed below. If you come across a term not listed, consult a dictionary, or a more specialised encyclopaedia or dictionary dealing with library and information work.

We shall first look at the terms for print resources. They include binder, printer, publisher, bookseller and library supply agent. The most important is the publisher.

Publisher:
A person and/or corporate body whose business is the issuing of books, periodicals, music and other printed items. This business will involve the production of multiple copies of such works and their distribution to booksellers and other dealers, and sometimes direct to the public. Sometimes the term publishing house is used instead of publisher. When this occurs, it usually means a company is involved. The publisher or publishing house will usually employ a range of

specialist people to perform certain tasks such as editorial work or the design of the dust cover or jacket. Two other specialists involved will be the printer and the binder.

Printer:

A person whose business or work is printing or setting typeface, so that the intellectual and/or artistic content is placed on paper. The printer uses machines, inks and paper. He/she will have nothing to do with the intellectual and/or artistic content of the work. Sometimes the term printing company is used instead of printer. The place where a printer works is called a printery.

Binder:

A person whose business or work is the organising of the printed pages into the correct order, and placing a cover around the pages. Sometimes this is all done by hand, but usually machines are used. Sometimes the term binding company is used instead of binder. The place where a binder works is called a bindery.

On many occasions, a publisher or publishing house will also own the printery or bindery. When they do not, they will make contracts with individual printers and binders, when they have work to be done.

The final stage in the production of information resources is the distribution of the publications to the community at large. There are several ways in which this is done. The most common approach is through newsagencies and bookshops. However, not everyone has access to a newsagency or bookshop, so other methods such as a visiting salesman or a mail order approach are used. The distribution process in relation to libraries is different and a specialist type of service to meet their needs has been developed. It is a library supply agency. In each case, the newsagency, bookshop or library supply agency participates in the information environment for commercial and profit motives. They must cover their operating costs, and make a profit. However, in some situations, publishing information is heavily subsidised as in the case of government and church publishing and information distribution. In the case of government publishing, the money to subsidise the activities comes from taxation revenue. With church or religious publishing, funds come from donations by followers of that group. Sometimes the donations are made within the country, but in many emerging nations, the money comes from overseas countries. You can prepare your own definitions for newsagency and bookshop. However, one for library supply agency might be more difficult, as you may not have one in your own country, and a suitable agency may only be found in overseas countries.

Library Supply Agency:
A commercial enterprise set up to supply print and non-print resources to library and other information agencies. There are many of these agencies, but two often used by libraries in the South Pacific are:

(a) James Bennett Library Services, located in Sydney, Australia;
(b) Blackwell North America Inc., located at Beaverton, Oregon in the United States. (related to B.H. Blackwell of Oxford, England).

Such organisations do not deal with the public, and do not have a collection available for the public or library staff to browse through. The agency will supply print and non-print resources on demand from a library which has identified specific resources as being relevant to the information needs of its users, and for which they have placed a specific order.

The church bookshop has a specialist function in many countries. Its main function will be to supply specialist religious resources to a group of people. The operation of the church bookshop will normally be heavily subsidised. Often the church bookshop may be the only bookshop in a geographic area, and may usually take on the functions of a newsagency, and also provide resources usually found in a commercial bookshop. This is particularly true for information resources designed for children, new literates and resources provided for an improvement in the quality of life.

The government may also have a bookshop, or a number of bookshops which are concerned with the distribution of government information. These may only be available in the capital city, and the people in the rural areas may not have access to the bookshop. However, in most countries, each government department or agency, or statutory authority usually has a publications section. This section will be concerned with the nature of publications produced; their level in order to meet community information needs and literacy levels; and their distribution to potential users. To help distribute this information, the government department or agency, or statutory authority often employs information officers. They may be specialists in the areas of health, nutrition, family planning, fishing or agriculture. Sometimes they might be called extension workers. Their job is to make sure that government information reaches the people. Sometimes the information can only be transmitted to the people using an oral and/or a pictorial approach, as some of the people in an area may not be able to read or write. This is why government information is available in more than a print resource form.

All these people and agencies who are concerned with the production of print information resources are known collectively as the book trade. This group will include the authors, printers, binders, publishers, commercial booksellers, church bookshops, government information workers, library supply agencies and other people and organisations concerned with published information resources. This group of people, companies and organisations often form professional societies to help achieve the aims and objectives of the information industry. These societies can be organised at the regional, national and international level. One example at the international level is the International Booksellers Federation.

You can identify many similar societies and professional associations.

Our observations about the information industry have been limited to print resources. The same pattern exists for non-print resources. However, in some newly independent nations, the pattern may not be in existence for a number of reasons. Often the major reason is that the hardware and associated information resources are not widely available in the local environment. So it may not be possible to show a 16mm film or a video-cassette to people in a rural area. A more viable approach may be to use items from the still visual images group or artefacts in the information transfer process. A picture, drawing or poster used by an extension officer speaking in the local dialect may reach a wider percentage of the community than would a book. Often a radio programme transmitted through a broadcasting system listened to by a group of villagers using a battery operated radio would be more relevant as an information resource than a book. Another approach to information transfer is using a sound tape cassette with a highly portable sound tape cassette player/ recorder.

Whatever the use of non-print resources, there will be a structured production and distribution pattern for them in the same way as there is for print resources. The participating people and organisations/institutions form what is usually known as the media trade. Sometimes these people and organisations will also be involved in the book trade. For example, a newsagency might sell newspapers, magazines, books, sound tape cassettes, gramaphone records and posters.

In the production of most non-print resources, a person and/or organisation/institution assumes the task of issuing films, sound tape cassettes, gramaphone records. The function is similar to that of the publisher or publishing house for print resources. In the case of non-print resources, we shall use the term production agency. Examples of the production agency include individual people, private companies, commercial radio stations, government broadcasting services, television stations and educational institutions such as a university or a polytechnic.

The production agency will usually employ a range of specialist people to perform certain tasks. Their individual contributions will vary according to the non-print resource being made. Let us consdier some of the people who may be involved in the making of a 16mm film. They include the producer, the director, the cameraman, the technicians who process the film, the sound editor, the film editor, the costume person and many more. Often you cannot identify all the people and their individual contributions.

The production agency often distributes and co-ordinates the selling of its products. However, the agency may use a specialist distributor to act on its behalf, particularly in realtion to an overseas country, and where the cost may be very high. Commercial outlets may specialise in the sale of non-print resources. The best example is the record shop which specialises in the sale of gramophone records and sound tape cassettes, and may also sell posters, sheet music and some hardware. Often a government agency involved in the production of non-print resources will operate their own sales outlets. One example is the National Broadcasting Commission in Papua New Guinea which produces a series of local music on sound tape cassettes. They are sold directly to the public.

How do we know what has been made and available as either a print or non-print resource? This can be a real problem for librarians and information workers. The school librarian will need to use a number of approaches to find out what he/she may purchase, hire or borrow.

Publishers, media agencies, library supply agencies, production companies, bookshop owners and other entrepreneurs in the book and media trade produce and distribute promotional resources to publicise their services, and the nature of the print and non-print resources they have for distribution. They may be selling them, lending them or giving them away free. These types of promotional resources can be divided into:

(a) letters; or blurbs;
(b) handbooks or pamphlets;
(c) catalogues;
(d) booklists.

Sometimes the information may be combined, and included in a special type of publication, known as a publisher's package, or a supplier's folder.

Letters are sent from a bookshop or a publisher to interested information agencies, including the school library, outlining their services in general or describing an individual book, or serial, or film for sale. Sometimes these letters will be sent on a personal basis, but usually the letters are just addressed to The Librarian. Most of this information will come to you unsolicited. If you have no need for this sort of information, after looking at it, throw it away. Publishers and production agencies often will produce a sheet to advertise a new book, film, multi-media kit or learning package. This type of sheet is known as a blurb, and will give the bibliographic details, the price and a short annotation or description about the item. When this information for a number of items is joined together and there are many sheets, it may be called a pamphlet or a handbook. You may have a special term that you use in your library and information work to describe these items.

The term catalogue is often used to describe publications which publishers and media agencies use to promote their sales. We shall concern ourselves with book publishers, but the same approach can be applied to non-print resources. Every publisher, whether large or small; regional, national or international; or, specialist or generalist will have a catalogue listing the books they currently have for sale throughout the world. This catalogue is usually available free of charge from the publisher, or its agent in your country. Often these catalogues arrive unsolicited, or sometimes because you have made a request to be placed on the publisher's free distribution list. These catalogues are a useful guide to what is available. However, they usually do not include an objective evaluation by an external source of the books. This means the publisher's catalogue is of limited value when you are selecting print and non-print resources for the school library. You can have your name placed on the free distribution list from any publisher, production agency or library supply agency. A telephone call, or a letter to the publisher or the relevant agency in your region or country will have your name, or the school library's placed on the appropriate mailing list.

The term booklist is an all-embracing term, and in your work as a school librarian, you may compile a booklist. It will usually represent a specialist approach to a theme, a subject, the type of material or a combination of materials. Often the booklist will give brief bibliographic details, usually author, title, and sometimes publisher and date of publication. When we use booklists to find out what is available, they will usually be from a bookshop, government department, library supply agency, or other agencies involved in the book and media trade. Often a bookshop will compile a specialist booklist of resources suitable for use with school pupils, and send the booklist to schools. School librarians then purchase on a mail order basis from this list. Sometimes the booklist may include resources which are being sold at a reduced price. Throughout the world, a number of booksellers specialise in secondhand books and are known as belonging to the antiquarian book trade.

The government (its agencies and departments) produces specialist lists and catalogues of the information resources that they make available to the public. These catalogues can be:

(a) individual listings - compiled and distributed by each department or agency - the lists will normally include resources produced and published by that department or agency, and maybe only one type of information resource, or maybe multi-media;

(b) a catalogue of government publications produced by a central government publishing service - the catalogue will be produced on a regular basis, giving new publications on sale, including cost - similar in function to the catalogues produced by commercial publishers;

(c) catalogues of information reosurces produced by government departments and agencies and available for loan. Examples are the collections of 16mm films held in an embassy or high commission available for loan to libraries and societies.

You should be able to identify the relevant government listings in relation to your own country and the school library.

You may have difficulty in identifying relevant publishers, media suppliers, government department bookshops and other organisations involved in the book and media trade. At the local level, you can use the telephone directory for indetification purposes. You can use the telephone directories of other regions and countries for the same identification purposes. Sometimes you can use a published government directory to identify the names and addresses of government departments and agencies involved in the production and distribution of print and non-print resources. Sometimes special lists of publishers and other organisations involved in the book and media trade are produced giving the relevant name, address, telephone or telex contact point, and a scope note which describes the nature of the services provided. These lists are known as guides or directories. Examples of relevant guides and directories are:

The African book world and press - a directory. *Oxford: Zell, 1977.*

Literary market place. London: Bowker. Annual.

Cassell's directory of publishing in Great Britain, the Commonwealth, Ireland, South Africa and Pakistan. London: Cassell. Biennial.

International directory of booksellers. London. Library Association, 1978.

Sometimes in a country where there is only a small number of printers, publishers etc., the listing may be included as part of another publication. One example of this is the *Fiji National Bibliography* published in December 1981. One section of that publication is devoted to a Directory of Printers and Publishers.

As you may realise, the task of searching all the guides and directories relating to the book and media trade, and trying to collect leaflets, pamphlets, blurbs and catalogues from every relevant publisher, media agency etc. is a major task. Many library and information agencies rely upon what are known as trade bibliographies. They are limited to the book, gramophone or some other form and list the production of a single country. Sometimes more than one country may be included. These works are necessary guides to locate titles for purchase, identification and verification, and sometimes for selection. They cannot be used to locate resources held in libraries. They are called trade bibliographies, as they are compiled by the book and media trade, and represent resources currently available for sale. The major trade listings for English language materials are published in the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada and Australia. However, as your school library will want to buy resources published overseas, you may want to consult some trade bibliographies. You will notice as you examine some examples, that they are published on a regular basis and can also be described as periodicals. Examples that you might examine include:

Books

(a) *Australian bookseller and publisher: for Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific.* Melbourne: D.W. Thorpe. Monthly.

This trade publication is restricted by geographic area, with emphasis on Australia. It includes information about the book trade in the region; a list of books placed on sale in the month prior to publication of the periodicals; advertisements by publishing houses; and general publishing news.

(b) *Bookseller: organ of the book trade*. *London: Whitaker. Weekly.* Similar in function to the above trade publication, but related to the United Kingdom. It includes a weekly alphabetical list of new publications issued by the book trade.

(c) *Publishers weekly: the book industry journal*. *New York: Bowker. Weekly.*
Similar in function to (a) and (b), and covers the continent of North America. It contains a list of new publications, lists of books announced for publication and advertisements.

Government Publications

The government publishing service of a country will often produce its own listing of the publications available for sale. You may think this is the same as a publisher's catalogue. It is similar, but it is different. A government publishing service acts on behalf of a number of government departments and agencies. It can act as a publisher, a bookshop, and a library/media supply agency on behalf of all departments. Not every country will have its own listing of government publications, as the country may not publish enough to provide a separate list. You could find that such countries will include a listing of their government publications as part of a larger listing.

Examples of separate listings of government publications in the English-speaking world are:

(a) *Australian Government Publishing Service. Monthly catalogue of publications placed on sale. Canberra. The Service. Monthly.*

This publication lists government information resources placed on sale during the time covered by the monthly issue. The listing includes publications of the Australian Parliament, and government departments and agencies. It includes books, periodicals, pamphlets, government reports, and acts of parliament. The publication excludes non-print resources. Sometimes the resources listed may be available free of charge.

(b) *Her Majesty's Stationery Office. Monthly catalogue: government publications of February 1982. London: Office. Monthly.*
This publication is similar to (a), except it is concerned with the United Kingdom.

There are many other examples of publications which list government information resources. However, in your own country, such a list may not exist. One of the reasons for this will be that the amount of government publishing is so small, therefore no list is required. Another reason will be that no organisation or person has bothered to think such a listing is important. However, as the amount of government publishing increases in a country, the government realises there is a need to compile a list on a regular basis. Sometimes a person or an organisation will realise the need to record what has been published in earlier years. This is known as retrospective bibliography. The compilation of retrospective listings for information resources produced in and about your country may be a task which still has to be undertaken. You should be able to identify such a need, and perhaps you can make a contribution to the compilation of such a list.

If you want to find out what government information resources in the non-print form are available, you will usually have to contact each government department or agency on an individual basis. This will be necessary if you are interested in maps, sound tape cassettes, films, charts or some other non-print form. It is therefore a good idea to have your name placed on the mailing or distribution list of any government department or agency. You will then obtain their publication list or catalogue, and also most of their free publications.

Non-Print Resources

Some of these are available to the school library free of charge, if they have been published and distributed by a government department or agency. It is therefore a good idea to have your name placed on any relevant mailing lists.

Some trade publications will include both print and non-print resources. However, there are many that are concerned with one type of resource. One example is the *Gramophone* which lists gramophone records and sound tapes. This publication is published in three parts:

(a) Classical music;
(b) Popular music;
(c) Spoken word and Miscellaneous.

As the catalogue is published in London, it has a bias towards Great Britain. However, as the gramophone record and sound tape trade is international, the *Gramophone* is useful throughout the world.

Another type of listing which libraries and information agencies use to find out what is available is called in-print listing. The latter is compiled by commercial and some government agencies to inform the world what is available for sale. These in-print listings reflect what the publishing house still has available for sale in its warehouse. If the items are not included in the in-print listings, they are then out of print. This term is usually abbreviated to O.P. or O/P. Examples of in-print listings are usually organised by geographical area and by type of resource. They are usually published each year, and published in book form. Certain titles you might consult are:

African books in print
Australian books in print
Australian serials in print
British books in print
Books in print

Each of these listings will include what is available from the publisher. If the resource is not listed in one of these in-print listings, you may still be able to buy the resource, as a bookshop or record shop may have bought several copies from a publisher, but as they have not been sold, still remain on the bookshop shelves. It is hard to know what is currently held in a bookshop unless you visit it. This is why it is a good idea to have your name placed on any mailing list which is produced by a bookshop, or other agency which sells information resources. As you will recall, most of the in-print listings are published annually. This means much of the bibliographic information presented may easily be out-of-date, before the next annual issue appears. To overcome this problem, some in-print listings are now published in a microfiche format each month. Examples are *British books in print* and *Books in print*. The microform editions mean the information is more up to date. Remember you need a microfiche reader to retrieve the information contined on microfiche. The cost involved in purchasing and maintaining the reader may be greater than the benefit you gain from purchasing the microfiche up-dated set of an in-print listing.

The concept of bibliographic control as a permanent record of the publishing output, whether print or non-print is best expressed through the term national bibliography. The national bibliography forms part of national bibliographic control. In some countries of the world, where publishing output is small, some countries or nations will combine to achieve regional bibliographic control. Whatever the geographic area covered, the nature of information resources included and the time period covered, the aim is to create a permanent record of publishing output for present use, and for use by the nation's future generations. A variety of publications are usually produced to achieve national, or regional bibliographic control. They include a national bibliography, a national list of serials, union catalogues, map listings, film catalogues, indexes to the contents of periodicals, and guides to the nature of the collections of libraries and information agencies. The following are examples of publications which contribute to national or regional bibliographic control. You should attempt to examine each publication critically:

Australian national bibliography
British national bibliography
Fiji national bibliography
New Zealand national bibliography
Papua New Guinea national bibliography

You will notice these publications have a similar purpose. However, you will notice differences in relation to:

(a) the range of publications included;
(b) the arrangement of the bibliography;
(c) the frequency of the bibliogrpahy;
(d) the amount of information included in each entry.

Some of the national bibliographies include detailed bibliographic information which can be used for cataloguing and classification. You will also note that most national bibliographies include all publications irrespective of publisher.

Specialist listings and catalogues of a specific nature are compiled, and help contribute to a much fuller pattern of national and regional bibliographic control. Such listings are undertaken by individuals; departments of academic institutions such as a university or a polytechnic; government departments; research institutes and private companies. You will be able to locate and identify many examples of these special lists and catalogues. One example of sich a list is:

> *University of the South Pacific: Publications. Selected bibliography No. 8.* Suva: Library, University of the South Pacific, 1981.

The listing contains citations from 1968 when the University began publishing. The list covers all subject areas and includes 850 items, all of which are included in the collection of the Library at the University of the South Pacific.

Another example of a specialist listing which helps to achieve regional bibliographic control is:

Austronesian and other languages of the Pacific and South East Asia: an annotated catalog of theses and dissertations. Canberra: Department of Linguistics, Research School of Pacific Studies, Australian National University, 1981.

You will be able to identify a range of listings which are relevant to your own country. Sometimes the publication will be available in a print form, or what is known as hard copy. Many of these publications which contribute to total national bibliographic control are only available in a microform format. One example of this relates to Papua New Guinea. If you wish to subscribe to that country's union catalogue of serials, and you are an overseas subscriber, it will automatically be sent in microfiche format. That publication can be bibliographically described as:

Papua New Guinea national union list of serials. 2nd ed. Boroko, Papua New Guinea: PNG National Library Service, 1981.
The publication lists the holdings of 60 libraries in Papua New Guinea, ranging from the smallest special library to the holdings of the National Library of Papua New Guinea. There are 20,000 entries, and statements of holdings are given for 11,000 entries.

Available from: PNG National Library Service,
P.O. Box 5770,
Boroko,
Papua New Guinea

All these publications form a pattern which attempts to achieve regional or national bibliographic control. The level of achievement of this bibliographic control will vary from country to country, often depending on the level of library development in the country concerned.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION THREE (2.3)

1. Prepare definitions for the following terms. Give examples where relevant.

    (a) author;
    (b) corporate body;
    (c) shared responsibility;
    (d) editor;
    (e) illustrator;
    (f) publisher;
    (g) library supply agency;
    (h) printer;
    (i) binder;
    (j) production agency.

2. List and describe four types of publicity used by the book and media trade to publicise their services.

3. Define the term trade bibliography.

4. Define the terms in-print and out-of-print as it relates to the availability of information resources.

5. Define the term bibliographic control.

2.4 PEOPLE AS AN INFORMATION RESOURCE

Every member of a community has a story to tell. It might just be gossip, or it might be memories of a time when the cyclone came, or it might be something very special and personal that they wish to keep as a secret until they die. It is unfortunate that this type of information is often not recorded in a written form, or in a sound or visual form to be passed onto the next generation. Much of this information is lost forever at the time of the death of the person. You might be thinking what does it matter if it has not been recorded. Throughout the world many librarians, information workers, biographers, archivists, historians and anthropologists are attempting to record information before it is gone forever. These activities are undertaken in an attempt to gather all the information about a particular country. This allows future generations to have access to this information, and can be used forever.

Much of this information is only passed on by word of mouth, known as the oral tradition. Many people in a community have a high degree of specialist knowledge on a wide range of topics. These topics might include the local environment, how to build a boat, how to make pottery, or how to prepare a special feast. They might have knowledge about the community's customs, myths and legends; local history; religion and about people and about events which have taken place in the past. You can probably think of many other topics or information you have learned through the oral tradition. This information is passed on from generation to generation; by this is meant parent to child, or from a person in a community who has a special position in that community. This may be someone such as the medicine man, a storyteller or an elder. In your community, these people may have a special name, and you will be aware of their role in your own community. The amount of knowledge held in the minds of people in any community is vast.

Why then is this information not recorded in a permanent form? There are many reasons,

(a) the person who has that knowledge may not consider that information important enough to record it in a permanent form;

(b) the person may not have the skills required to record the information e.g. may not be able to read and write;

(c) the person may not have the necessary equipment to record the information in a photograph from or in a sound form;

(d) the society in which the person lives may not have access to the necessary technology such as publishing houses, printers, media agencies to produce the information in a permanent form even if that is their wish.

In many countries, some people attempt to record the information they have learned through the oral tradition, through experience, discovery, formal education or some other learning method. These are people who have learned to read and write. As you will be aware, not every member of a community has learned this skill, and therefore the percentage of the community's population who create this type of record is small. The type of records created by individuals are usually of a personal nature and include letters, diaries, memoirs, documents such as marriage, birth and death certificates, and financial records such as bank books, ledgers and taxation details. Sometimes these records are handwritten, sometimes they are typewritten, sometimes they are in original form or they may be carbon copies. In many cases, people who keep personal records do not realise their value. It is important that library and information workers make sure people do not destroy their personal records, but give them to libraries and archives institutions which collect such items. Remember most of these personal items are unique or are the only copy ever produced. They are different to books and periodicals, which are produced in large numbers, sometimes up to 50,000 copies at once using machines. Some library and information workers spend a great deal of time collecting this type of personal information which is in a semi-permanent form. One specialist group mainly concerned with collecting this type of information are called archivists. All types of library including the school are interested in this information also, but in a school library it would only form a small part of the total collection of information resources.

Many library and information workers actively assist people to record this type of information in other forms such as in photographs, on sound tape, or on videotape. Many information agencies have portable cameras, sound tape cassette recorders and video recorders, and use staff to go into the community to collect this type of information. This approach helps overcome some of the problems discussed before. The type of information collected might include myths and legends previously passed on through the oral tradition; it might be music of a special local nature played by an expert; it might be a videotape of some dancing, or it might be photographs which show the steps in making a special type of local pottery. Perhaps you can think of records of a personal or local nature which the school library could collect and add to its resources.

The range of information resources found in any information agency is vast. Many of those resources will have been purchased from commercial suppliers; some will have come from government departments and agencies, others from private organisations, and others from individual persons. There are many other places from which to acquire resources for the school library. During the rest of the course you will identify these sources. In addition to collecting your own information from the community or local area, you may decide to produce resources to meet specific needs in the teaching/learning situation. The term to describe this type of production is in-house.

You will now be aware that information resources are generated by a wide range of organisations, institutions, and people.

Sometimes they will be purchased, other times they will be given free, and on some occasions they will be exchanged. In a school library, you will find that your information resources will fit this pattern, but the amount you can purchase will depend on how much money you have to spend. Often this is not very much, so you may have to rely heavily on free resources, and collect information resources from your local environment.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION FOUR (2.4)

1. What does the term oral tradition mean to you?
2. List four reasons why information known through the oral tradition is not often recorded in a permanent form.
3. List some of the ways in which library and information workers may attempt to record the oral tradition.
4. Explain what the term people as an information resource means to you.

2.5 INSTITUTIONAL RESOURCES

In any country there are many institutions and agencies which are concerned with the generation, distribution, use, storage, preservation and sometimes evaluation of information. Many of these institutions and agencies are funded by the government, although some are provided by commercial or industrial firms. As many of these institutions and agencies are funded by government, their development is affected by the amount of money the government is able to spend on them. Government priorities may be ensuring all people in a country are healthy and well, that they have enough to eat and that they have a house in which to live. Whatever the government's priorities may be, that government needs access to information about its own country, and information from other countries which may help the government achieve its priorities. Education is usually one of the priorities of any government, and the school is one part of that education priority. As the library in a school is part of that priority, then school libraries and their development will be affected by the amount of money made available to them as a percentage of government expenditure on information provision and organisation in that country.

As well as the school library, the government of a country usually provides library service through:

(1) a national library;
(2) university and college libraries;
(3) public and community libraries;
(4) special libraries.

In addition to these broad groups, you may refer to some libraries by more specific terms such as hospital library, polytechnic library, toy library, industrial library or film library.

There are other examples, and you will know of those in relation to your own country. Whatever the term used, the library will belong to one of the four groups listed above, apart from the school library. In some cases, industrial agencies and commercial firms will have a library as part of their operation, and they will pay for the costs themselves. These are known as special libraries. Some benevolent or charitable organisations, and aid agencies may also have libraries. The libraries of a country are one type of information agency offering information service to the people of that country. There are other types of information agencies in a country, and those in conjunction with libraries form what is called an information network.

The government funds the generation and distribution of information through its departments, agencies and statutory authorities; its national airline; its consulates, embassies and High Commissions in overseas countries; and through other means depending on government policy. These are known as information services, and each will have a clearly defined function, although sometimes these functions overlap, and also complement each other. In broad terms, government information services have the following aims:

(a) to inform people, both within the country and overseas about the country and its people;
(b) to inform people about the government and its policies;
(c) to inform people as to how they can improve their lifestyle;
(d) to inform people of their individual rights in that country.

This information is available to people in most of the print and non-print resource forms that you considered earlier. Sometimes a photograph of a beautiful beach displayed in an overseas embassy may attract a tourist to fly on a national airline to a particular country. Sometimes an extension officer will visit a village in a rural area to explain to the people why the government wishes to build a new hydro electric power station in their area. Sometimes it may be an agricultural officer showing a film about how to improve crop yields, and on other occasions, it may be a health worker explaining about nutrition and child care.

The range of departments, agencies etc. funded by the government is extensive. They will vary from country to country, and they will be called by a variety of names according to the manner in which the government has organised and structured its operations. You will know how the government in your country is organised. If you are not sure, then a local directory and the local telephone book will help you. In some countries, the department which is concerned with housing and people's welfare might be known as housing and welfare; in another country, it might be called social welfare, and in another, it might be social security. In your own country, you should be able to locate the appropriate department. You will also find that the names of these departments and agencies often change. As a school librarian you will need to keep up to date with these changes.

Most of these departments, agencies etc. funded by the government produce a range of information resources. These are produced in both print and non-print resource forms. They are produced to cater for individual differences in level of subject comprehension, and also in levels of achievement in relation to reading, listening and viewing skills. Not everyone can read and write, has a film projector to view a film, or a radio with which to listen to a broadcast. This is why the government often provides as part of its information service, a person or group of persons who visit homes, villages, farms and communities to disseminate appropriate information on a verbal basis. Much of this information is available or presented in a form which is temporary or semi-permanent; and from which there is no permanent record.

One government agency which produces a wide range of information resources relating to its own country is the national airline.

These resources range from posters to multi-media kits. They are designed as publicity material to attract people to fly with the airline, and distributed in countries to which the airline flies. These resources are usually of a high quality, accurate and the language used is at a simple and basic level, able to be comprehended by a majority of the population. The national airline often makes these resources available to schools in its own country. Your own airline may have such resources, and so will other countrys' national airlines which fly into your country. Another type of information agency offering promotional information is the tourist bureau. It may also be known as the tourist agency, the tourist commission or some other similar term. The tourist bureau produces a range of information about the geographic area in which it is operating. Often this is written in language at a simple and basic level and the information is factual and up-to-date. It is presented in many forms including brochures, pamphlets and maps. These information resources are most valuable to the school librarian, the teacher and the pupils.

Resource centres and cultural centres also have a role to play in the provision of information resources. The term resource centre is a very broad one, and can be interpreted in many ways. Sometimes the school library is called the school library resource centre, or the resource materials centre. A resource centre is like a library, used by many people, and often operated by people who hold no qualifications in librarianship. The main characteristics of a resource centre are:

(a) concern with a special subject area or theme;
(b) the development of a collection of information resources related to that special subject area or theme;
(c) a group of workers who normally have specialist knowledge or skills in relation to that special subject area or theme;

(d) the gathering of information, and production of information resources on the special subject area or theme;

(e) the dissemination of that information to the community.

You can see this term resource centre is similar to library, information agency or information service. In many countries, a special type of resource centre is a cultural centre. A cultural centre is concerned with the preservation of the culture of a country, and in some ways is like a museum. A cultural centre will have the five characteristics given above. However, it will be concerned with keeping alive the country's culture, therefore have in its group of workers, people who have specialist knowledge and skills in craft, art, music, dance and other areas. These people will be concerned with demonstrating these skills, and also teaching other people these skills and techniques. Often these cultural centres attract a large number of visitors from overseas.

Museums and art galleries are also institutions concerned with information resources. They are usually funded by government, but sometimes by a private individual, an industrial firm, or a society such as a historical society. Art galleries are concerned with the preservation of artistic works created about a country, or by nationals of a country. These artistic works may be photographs, pictures, prints and artefacts such as pottery, carvings and weaving. Often an art gallery is closely linked with a museum. They are often administered by one corporate body, and often share the same building. Their functions are closely related, and do overlap. A museum may be national in its scope, or may be specifically concerned with a geographic region, or a town or a city, or a specific subject or theme such as geology, telecommunications or transport. A museum will have in its collection, a representative collection of real objects and specimens collected from within the community. These objects and specimens will relate to the museum's objectives and area of coverage. A museum will be concerned with the preservation of these objects and specimens for use by future generations. The museum will also have the five characteristics listed under resource centre.

You can therefore appreciate that a large number of other information agencies participate in the information environment as well as libraries. All are concerned with information in one way or another, and through co-operation form what is known as an information network.

Another information agency which forms part of the information network are archives repositories. This type of organisation may be an individual organisation in its own right. Sometimes archives will be part of a larger organisation such as a national library, a museum, a cultural centre or another specialist organisation perhaps unique to your country. The type of material to be collected and preserved will usually be of a unique or semi-permanent nature. Items such as letters, diaries, financial records and personal drawings fit into this category. So do photographs, sound tapes and video-recordings as discussed in People as an information resource. In addition to records made by individual people, archives repositories are often given statutory responsibility to collect records of the government and its activities. These records are usually the files of information which the government creates as part of its administration. Archives repositories are also interested in collecting the records and papers of societies such as the Red Cross, the local family planning organisation, the nursing mothers association and sporting clubs. You can think of many other appropriate organisations and bodies, in relation to your own country. Archives repositories are also interested in obtaining the papers of business and industrial firms. The resources collected, organised, stored and made available for use are unique, and are often used for research. Special conditions apply to their use. They may have been transferred from their original format, if handwritten or typewritten, to a substitute form which is usually microform, either microfiche or microform.

Archives repositories have a special place in the preservation of information about a country and its people.

We have now considered a wide range of institutions and agencies involved in the information network. They include the government, the national airline, a tourist bureau, a resource centre, a cultural centre, an art gallery, a museum and an archives repository. We have mentioned libraries, but have not discussed their role and place in the information network.

You will recall that earlier we divided libraries into four broad categories, and we shall now examine each category.

National libraries: Most countries have a national library, or a national library service. Examples of national libraries in the world include:

(a) National Library of Australia;
(b) National Library of Papua New Guinea;
(c) Library of Congress (U.S.A.);
(d) British Library.

This type of library usually has the words national and library in its title, as well as the name of the country. Whatever way their name is structured, a national library is usually established under an act of parliament, or similar legislative government decision. Such an act usually sets out the functions of the national library. In some countries, where there is no act of parliament, the national library will often be established by an administrative decision. The functions of a national library are usually:

(a) to develop a comprehensive collection of information resources about the country and its people;
(b) to store, preserve and organise these information resources, so that they will be available for use by the present generation, and also by future generations;

(c) to develop a research collection of information resources about nearby countries, and other subject areas at an international level;

(d) to compile and produce national bibliographic information, such as the national bibliography, national periodical indexes, national union catalogues, and other publications such as a directory of a country's libraries and their holdings;

(e) to act as a catalyst and be a stimulus for library development in the country.

A national library will usually try to collect all information resources that have been:

(a) published in its country, regardless of language or subject;

(b) written by nationals of that country, regardless of country of publishing, language, and subject;

(c) written about the country and its people, regardless of where published and the nationality of those responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the work.

A national library collects both print and non-print resources, but often is more concerned with print resources. This is because other information agencies such as a museum, cultural centre, or art gallery may have been given responsibility for collecting many of the non-print resources. The national library co-operates with these other information agencies, and this helps form the information network. In some countries, there may not be a national library. However, when this happens, other libraries usually take over all or some of the functions of a national library. A university library, or a public library or a parliamentary library, or all three may be involved in sharing the functions. When a national library is formed, these libraries pass over these functions. This was the case in Papua New Guinea. Before the National Library of Papua New Guinea was formed, the functions were divided broadly as follows:

(a) the public library in Port Moresby was collecting resources of national significance;
(b) the library of the University of Papua New Guinea was also collecting resources of national significance, and producing national bibliographic information;
(c) the archives repository was collecting resources of a national significance.

With the formation of the National Library of Papua New Guinea,

(a) the public library transferred its collection of national significance to the new library;
(b) the university library transferred its national bibliographic information functions to the new library, but did not transfer its collection;
(c) the archives repository became part of the new library.

In 1966, Dr. Kenneth Humphreys examined the various activities of a number of national libaries and classified the activities into three categories:

(a) essential or fundamental;
(b) desirable;
(c) necessary, but not necessarily carried out by the national library itself.

Humphreys based his studies on the "great" national libraries which are found in some of the developed countries, and did not really take into account the needs of the developing world. The great increase in national libraries in the developing world, and the introduction of automated technology have meant that some changes may need to be made to the list. However, the basic list and categories are still sound, but you will need to re-evaluate the categories in relation to national library developments in your own country or region.

(a) Essential or fundamental activities
   (i) developing the outstanding and central collection of a nation's literature is the

most basic activity of any national library. In developed countries this has often been interpreted as collecting the material written in that country but most national libraries today also attempt to collect material written about the country. Literature must be defined to include all types of media. In a developing country with a strong oral tradition, such as Western Samoa, a national collection of sight and sound could be as important to future scholars as the printed material about the country.

(ii) Legal deposit is a system by which at least one copy of every item published in a country is required to be deposited in the national library. This ensures that a complete record of a nation's publishing will be preserved for future generations. It is usually required that one copy can be used by those needing access to the item and one copy can be preserved for posterity. In most countries the publisher or the printer is responsible for depositing the items with the national library.

(iii) The collection of foreign literature is seen as an essential activity of national libraries. Most national libraries would attempt to develop an outstanding collection of foreign material especially material that is of immediate concern to the citizens of the country.

(iv) The publication of the national bibliography is an activity that is normally carried out by the national library, however, in some countries this is done by some other agencies such as a university or public library. The national bibliography should be a complete record of all the material published in a country. The National Library of Australia produces the *Australian National Bibliography* which is a record of books and pamphlets published in Australia as well as serial titles. It is important that national libraries insure that these bibliographic records are made available to other libraries and interested institutions that might have use for them and that they are also included in international data bases.

(v) The provision of national bibliographic services and a bibliographic information centre are seen as fundamental activities of national libraries. National libraries create or make available bibliographic records for items produced in their country and should develop systems to distribute these records to libraries to assist them in acquiring and cataloguing resources.

(vi) The printing of special catalogues of national library holdings and the provision of exhibitions of national library resources are activities carried out by most national libraries. However, except for the largest national libraries, these activities are not really of major importance although they do offer a mechanism to make people aware of the national library and its resources.

(b) Desirable functions

(i) Interlibrary loan was seen as a desirable function of national libraries by Humphreys.

In most nations only a small proportion of the population have ready access to the collection of the national library because most poeple are geographically isolated from the national library. Photocopying and other document reproduction processes are now common and libraries will often copy a document for a user rather than lending an item through interlibrary loan.

(ii) The preservation of manuscripts and other archival material is a function of many national libraries. Literary manuscripts are often considered an important part of library collections, and because this would be an important part of a nation's heritage, the national library should collect manuscripts or be sure that some other agency is collecting these. In developing countries it is important to ensure that manuscript material relating to the nation's heritage is preserved within the country and not lost to foreign agencies. If there is no separate national archives, then the national library needs to ensure that important archival material relating to the nation is preserved.

(iii) Research on library techniques is one activity that almost all national libraries undertake although often it is research that is related to improving the internal operations of the national library itself. National libraries also have an obligation to see that the results of research in librarianship are made available to the nation's information workers.

(c) Necessary functions, but not necessarily carried out by the national library itself

(i) The international exchange of materials is a function often carried out by national libraries although other agencies in a country might also be involved in this. Nations often enter into treaty arrangements which call for the exchange of publications between countries and the national library might be the exchange agency.

(ii) The distribution of duplicate copies of resources is an important function of a national library service. If there is not another agency to co-ordinate the distribution of unwanted duplicates from one library collection to that of other libraries which might want the item, then the national library will need to take on this activity. In any case, the national library should usually be given first chance to obtain duplicate and unwanted items that are not already in the national library collections.

(iii) The provision of resources for blind and handicapped library users is an important function and if no other national agency exists to co-ordinate such a programme then it becomes a legitimate activity of a national library.

(iv) The training of all library personnel has been seen as an important activity of national libraries. Most national libraries provide inservice training for their own staff and in some countries provide the training for the nation's library staff, especially the non-professional staff.

(v) Assistance in library techniques is an activity provided by many national libraries. In some countries the national library is responsible for the nation's libraries and would therefore provide the nation's libraries with direct assistance in library techniques and operations. Even in countries, such as Australia, in which the national library has no control over the nation's library system, some assistance is provided to the nation's libraries, often by the dissemination of information about improved library techniques that have been developed at the national library.

(vi) Library planning for the nation's library system may be an activity for which the library is responsible. In some countries the national library is responsible for national library planning. Even if it is not the agency responsible for national library planning, the national library of a particular country or region needs to be represented on any other national library and information planning body.

(vii) National libraries will often be the agency called upon to provide information to the government to carry out government library and information policy. National libraries will often provide the information to government officials needed to make general policy decisions

Although the activities performed by a particular national library depend upon the unique conditions of the country in which the library is located, it is generally accepted

> that the national library should be the hub of a nation's library services. The national library could carry out or ensure that some other agency is performing all of the various activities necessary for a well developed national library and information service.

You should be able to identify the pattern of development of national library provision in your own country.

The libraries in academic institutions other than in the school, have a special place in the information network of a country. You will find libraries in a university, a polytechnic, a teachers college, a technical college, an agricultural college, a bible college, or in any institution which has a post secondary school education function. You will be able to identify these in relation to your own country. We shall use the term academic library to include any library which falls into this broad grouping.

The academic library is part of a larger education institution. The library will therefore reflect the aims and objectives of that institution, and its operation should contribute to the achievement of the institution's aims and objectives.

Universities, colleges and polytechnics have five main functions. They are:

(a) conservation of knowledge and ideas;
(b) teaching;
(c) research;
(d) publication;
(e) extension activities.

Academic library programmes are designed to support these functions and activities.

The academic library will normally have the following functions:

- (a) to develop a collection of relevant information resources, both print and non-print, to support the teaching programme of the institution;
- (b) to teach students of the institution how to identify, locate, evaluate and use effectively appropriate information resources;
- (c) to provide services to the students, teaching staff, and sometimes members of the wider community, to ensure effective use of the collection, and other resources through the information network.

The size of the collection, the subject areas covered, the type of resources included in the collection, and the services offered will depend on the institution's aims and objectives, and the number of student enrolments. The size of the collection will also be determined by the amount of funds available, the subjects taught and the age of the institution. A newly established academic institution usually has a small library collection, but over a number of years, the collection will grow. Universities, colleges and polytechnics have a teaching function, and the library in these institutions must develop collections of information resources to support this teaching. Some academic libraries must support teaching programmes at the undergraduate, professional and postgraduate levels and this often places varying demands on the library. The academic library must collect multiple copies of books used in undergraduate courses with large student enrolments, whilst at the same time acquiring very specialised resources to be used in small postgraduate courses. Some academic institutions are not only concerned with teaching, but also research. They are usually a university, a polytechnic or a specialist college such as an agricultural college. If an academic institution is involved in research, then this will be reflected in the instiution's library through the type of collection, and the services offered.

The research collections of university libraries and the research activities of the staff of academic institutions have encouraged some academic libraries into developing a publications programme, or becoming involved in the publication activities of academic presses, particularly those located in universities. One of the most common type of publication issued by academic libraries are bibliographies of information resources held in the library. Academic libraries have published a wide range of information resources, including guides which index/abstract publications in an audiovisual format. You will become familiar with the range of the publications of academic institutions in your country.

Universities and colleges often provide a wide range of extension and service activities for the community such as adult education programmes, workshops and correspondence courses. The university library has to provide resources to participants in many of these extension activities, often by mail. Academic libraries become involved in community service by providing reference service to people outside of the university community and university libraries are often used by members of the general public. In Tonga the University of the South Pacific Centre provides limited public library service to the community.

The academic library caters largely for a clearly defined group of people. It will know the number of teaching staff and the number of students, and can plan its growth and services accordingly. This is different to the national library which operates to serve the people of a nation, at the present time and in the future.

The public library is another type of library which forms part of the information network. The term public means all the people living in a country. However, not all those people will have access to a public library and therefore only a percentage of the total population use a public library. Ideally the public library will provide:

(a) a collection of information resources and recreational resources for use by members of the community to be served;

(b) services to that community to ensure the resources are available and used effectively;

(c) a specialist collection and service involving local or community information.

This involvement with local or community information is a characteristic unique to the public library. The public library gathers information about the community, and makes it available. This information might be about local societies and clubs; people with special skills, or about the history of the area. Sometimes the public library co-operates with information workers such as the agricultural extension officer, or the health worker in the provision of information. If the public library is located in a multicultural and multilingual area, this will have to be reflected in the nature of the collection. It will also be important for the staff in the public library between them, to speak all the community languages. The following are the eight most common functions and activities carried out by public libraries throughout the world.

(a) provision of resources for loan;
(b) provision of a reference collection;
(c) provision of access to community information resources;
(d) provision of programmes;
(e) delivery of resources;
(f) provision of a reference service;
(g) provision of advice;
(h) provision of support for community groups.

(a) Provision of resources for loan. This is perhaps the most basic function. Although in some countries, such as France, all items provided by some public libraries are for use in the library only. The types of resources provided are books and other printed items, but many libraries also loan a range of non-print resources such as audio-cassettes, slides, toys, posters. The content and orientation of the resources varies according to the community being served, but also, often the values of the librarians selecting the resources. Some librarians will provide thrillers and romances in great number; others will emphasise what they regard as "quality" items with for example, a "cultural" orientation, or an emphasis on potential to educate readers.

(b) Provision of a reference collection. Items for references, or use in the library only, usually comprise part of the stock of public libraries. The emphasis is often on the informational content of these items and the rationale for keeping them in the library at all times, is that they should be available to the community to consult at will. Thus libraries actually have a reference collection containing such items as directories, encyclopaedias, dictionaries, atlases, handbooks, gazetteers, manuals and yearbooks. In some cases, information resources of this kind are rare or expensive, and this then becomes an additional reason for confining their use only in the library. This restriction helps preserve their physical condition.

(c) Provision of access to community information resources. Public libraries are part of a network of libraries of all types - state, academic, national, special etc. When a library does not hold an item required by a user it will either seek a copy on the user's behalf from another collection, or direct the user to the appropriate library. The user has, in theory at least, access to the totality of national resources through a locally based public library.

(d) Provision of programmes. Many libraries run series of recreational or cultural activities such as craft programmes, concerts, films and storytelling. They might also provide information programmes such as local history lectures or teaching library skills.

(e) Delivery of resources. In cases where members of the community are unable to come to the library, the library will deliver resources to them. Books may be sent by mail, brought in a book-mobile to an isolated centre, or delivered to a housebound or institutionalised individual. The philosophy guiding this type of service is that the library is a service not simply a physical location.

(f) Provision of a reference service. A fundamental role of the librarian is to answer questions. Thus the user will be provided with answers to factual questions, either by asking in person or by phoning-in.

(g) Provision of advice. Public librarians, knowledgeable about the resources in their libraries, have always provided advice to users on what books or resources might meet the needs expressed by users. Thus the public librarian might advise the novel reader about a particular author, or the student about an authoritative work on Pacific fishes.

(h) Provision of support for community groups. This support is often given through provision of access to library facilities such as use of a room in the library by the senior citizen's group. It can also be given through provision of expertise from library staff such as in organising a seminar, or through indexing the collection owned by a local historical society.

All public libraries do not always provide all of the eight functions listed above. Librarians and others in the community often need to decide just what are the most important functions for their public library. If there is a shortage of staff and money, then the library should concentrate on those functions which are most important to the community.

In some areas, the functions of the public library and the school library are combined and operate through one type of library. This combined library is known as a joint use library or a community library. The library is usually located in the school, and provides service to pupils, teachers and the community at large.

The special library is another type of library which forms part of the information network. Special libraries are located in commercial and business firms, industrial firms, law courts, government departments and agencies, statutory authorities, and research organisations. You may be able to think of relevant examples, and perhaps extend the list. You may be wondering why we use the term special. Its use has evolved over a period of time to describe the broad group of libraries who have special characteristics as follows:

(a) special, due to the nature of the information resources which may be of one type such as film, video, sound tape or gramophone record;
(b) special, due to the subject areas covered such as forestry, law, agriculture or medicine;
(c) special, due to highly specific information needs of the library's users, such as research scientists, lawyers, public servants, doctors, medical technologists and nurses;
(d) special, due to the manner in which the collection of information resources is organised; perhaps by using a high degree of specifity in subject indexing, or a specialised classification scheme.

Often the special library has a small collection of information resources. To meet the information needs of their users, the special library will rely upon the resources of other libraries in the information network. The special library will borrow items from other libraries and use a process known as interlibrary loan. Sometimes instead of receiving the original item, the library may receive the item in a substitute form such as a microform, or a photocopy of the original. To achieve this high degree of co-operation with other libraries, a special library needs to have a large collection of bibliographic tools. You will learn about such tools in other units of your course.

The *school library* or the *school library resource centre* is also part of the information network, and has an important contribution to make. We shall examine the role and function of the school library in *Unit 3: The School Library - An Overview*, and you will be able to compare the roles and functions of different types of libraries and information agencies.

We have now examined a wide range of libraries and information agencies, and their place in the *information network*. How do we know what resources each library or information agency has in its collection? There are a number of ways, some of which are published, some are not, and some may be available *on-line* via the computer. One way to find out whether a library or information agency has a particular item is to ask. This may be through a verbal face-to-face request, writing a letter or through a telephone call, or perhaps using another system such as the telex and/or the satellite. This is a very time consuming activity, and as librarians have limited time and none to waste, they have developed a number of methods to inform their users about their library, and the holdings of other libraries in the *information network*. These methods involve co-operating with each other. This allows them to produce, and sometimes publish *catalogues*, *guides*, *indexes* and *lists* which make the information about their holdings of information resources available to everyone in the *information network*. Sometimes a combined listing of the holdings of a number of libraries is compiled and made available. This is called a *union list* or *catalogue*. We shall discuss these and other *information control* mechanisms later in other units of the course.

Each library and information agency will have its own way of organising its resources. This individual approach is to help meet the needs of users, and to protect and preserve the resources.

Most libraries use a system of open access, which allows users to examine resources to determine whether they are suitable to meet their information needs. Sometimes access will be restricted, as the resources are in great demand, or they may be too valuable or they may be too fragile to have on open access. When this occurs, the term closed access is used. Sometimes all users are allowed access to the resources, but because a machine or a piece of hardware is needed to assist in retrieving the information, such as with 16mm film or videotape, those items are also placed on closed access. The reason for this is that the user may not have acquired the necessary skills to operate the hardware effectively, and therefore need assistance. This approach protects the information resource and the hardware from damage. Sometimes a resource has to be placed on display, but protected from being stolen, or damaged by people touching it, or damaged due to poor climatic control. This is why museums, art galleries and archives repositories are often air-conditioned where the temperature and humidity remain almost the same at all times. In some information agencies such as a cultural centre or a museum, when resources are placed on display, they may be protected by glass, a rope wall or some other method. Whatever the reason for using open, closed or limited access, the decision will have been made for a valid professional approach to information organisation, use and preservation. As you visit the information agencies in your local community and region, you should become aware of the different methods which are used in access to information resources.

Who makes these decisions? A team of people, some of whom have qualifications in their area of specialism, who work together to make the appropriate decisions. The names or terms given to these people will vary from one information agency to another. Broadly workers in information agencies can be organised into four categories:

(a) the manager;
(b) professional personnel;
(c) para-professional personnel;
(d) aides or support staff.

Sometimes these four groups, their roles and the duties performed overlap. In a school library where there is only one staff member he/she may be required to undertake the roles and duties of all four categories. We shall assume for the present, the information agency under discussion has the first three or four categories.

The manager will be the most senior person in charge of the information agency. The title by which that person is known will depend upon the nature of the information agency. In a museum or an art gallery, this person may be known as a director. In an archives repository, this person may also be known as the director, but usually as the chief archivist.

The head of a government information service may be best known as the senior information officer. In a library, the manager may be known as the librarian or if there is more than one professional librarian, the chief librarian. The person in charge of the operation of the National Library of Australia is known as the Director-General. Whatever the term, the person occupying the position has the responsibility to manage, organise, develop, promote and evaluate the quality of the service of the information agency.

Other professional personnel will support the chief librarian, the director, the chief archivist to achieve the institution's aims and objectives. The titles of the positions these people occupy will depend on the type of information agency involved. In an archives repository, the person may be called the photograph archivist, as this designates a specific area of professional competency and responsibility. In an art gallery, it may be a restoration officer and in a museum, it may be a chief biologist. In a library, you will hear professional personnel described as reference librarian, reader services librarian, chief cataloguer, technical services librarian or research librarian. These are senior positions, and people in these positions will hold qualifications in their area of expertise, and will normally have many years' working experience in a library or similar information agency. In some institutions, they may supervise other professional librarians.

In many countries of the world, the term para-professional is becoming more common, as it is applied to people who have specific competencies and skills in a job situation. In the library environment, they are usually known as library technicians or library media technicians. The people will have undertaken courses in educational institutions to gain a certificate or diploma to gain their specific skills and competencies. Sometimes the work of these people is combined with that of aide or support staff. These staff do the day-to-day basic tasks required to keep the inforamtion agency operating effectively. In a library, they may be known as an aide, an assistant or attendant. Similar titles will be given to people working in other information agencies. Whatever their title, people working in a library or information agency will participate as a member of a team co-operating to achieve the intitution's aims and objectives.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION FIVE (2.5)

1. List four reasons why the government of a country may offer information services to the people as a whole.

2. Describe the role of a country's national airline and tourist bureaus in information provision.

3. Describe and explain the role and functions of a cultural centre. Give examples where relevant.

4. Describe and explain the role and functions of an archives repository.

5. Describe the functions of a public library.

6. Give at least four reasons why a special library is termed special.

7. Explain what the term information network means to you.

8. List and describe the work of the four types of worker who may be employed in information agencies.

UNIT II

REFERENCES

Humphries, Kenneth W. *National library functions.* *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries.* *20 (July - August, 1966) pp. 158-169.*

COURSE II

UNIT III The School Library - An Overview

INTRODUCTION

This unit aims to provide AN OVERVIEW OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY and introduces the student to the role and functions of the school library. The unit is a basic introduction for subsequent units four, five and six.

The unit is divided into five (5) sections as follows:

1. Aims and objectives of education;
2. Methods of organisation of instruction;
3. Development of school library service;
4. School libraries - aims and functions;
5. School library staff.

The section Aims and Objectives of Education and the section Methods of Organisation of Instruction introduces the type of school library programme which may be developed in an educational system.

The section Development of School Library Service outlines in broad terms, the evolution of school library service in the western world and discusses current developments in the South Pacific. The section also discusses four stages through which school libraries pass, as they evolve to the level of providing effective library and information service to students and teachers.

In the section The Aims and Objectives of School Libraries are listed and discussed. The contributions that the school library can make in the teaching/learning process are outlined, as is the role of the school library in the personal development of students.

The section School Library Staff discusses the nature and patterns of staffing in a school library. The emphasis is given to the school librarian and school library assistant, although brief mention is made of clerical workers and volunteers.

3.1 THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

The role and function of a school library depends to a large extent upon the education system of a country. What a school library does should always be related to the aims and objectives of a nation's education system. A school library programme which does not fit into the nation's aims and objectives will not be a successful programme. In fact, many teachers in a school will not support programmes that are unrelated to the total objectives of the nation's education system. The major purpose of a school library is to support the educational goals of the total school system and to contribute to the achievement of those goals. Libraries do not act in isolation from their parent institutions, and school librarians need to be aware of the purpose of education in the society of which they are a part.

Many countries have formal statements of the purpose of the education system. Often these are statements of broad aims such as those for primary education in Western Samoa.

The Aims and Objectives of Primary Education in Western Samoa

The education of children is an important part of Western Samoan life, and the Primary School is regarded as an integral part of the village by the Samoan people.

In determining the aims of education, both the culture of Western Samoa and the expectations of the local community are given careful consideration, in order to ensure harmony and compatability between the school and society.

In this context, the following broad aims are seen as the basis of Primary Education in Western Samoa.

1. *To provide the child with a wide variety of learning experiences in the school, in order that he will be able to progress to his full potential.*

2. *To equip the child with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to enhance further the learning process.*

3. *To provide the child with the opportunity to understand and appreciate his environment and heritage.*

> 4. *To foster the physical, social, personal and moral development of the child both as an individual and as a contributing member of his society.*

(Pacific Islands Primary Inservice Program, 1979, p. 65).

These broad aims are usually supplemented by more specific aims such as:

> The child should know how to acquire information other than by reading; for example by asking questions, by experimenting, by listening to the radio, by watching films, plays and concerts.

A school library programme could certainly contribute to the broad and to the specific aims of education in Western Samoa. Individuals designing a school library programme would want to relate the various aspects of their programme to the formal statements of the aims of education in their particular country.

In addition to the formal statements of aims and objectives of education in a country, there are also often unstated objectives. These unstated objectives can vary greatly. Some of these might be:

(a) Socialization of the students - Many people expect the schools to socialize young people so that they will become stable citizens of the community. The school passes on the value systems of the society. School libraries would want to know just what set of values the community wants passed on and design appropriate programmes.

(b) Babysitting - The education system is often viewed as an institution that will care for students during a certain part of the day while parents are working. If this is an unstated objective of a country's school system, libraries might need to provide services before and after the regular school day.

(c) Public entertainment and recreation - In some societies the school is looked at as a source of entertainment for the community at large. In these communities school libraries might have a role in providing recreational services to the general public and programmes such as film showings, storytelling or providing recreational books would be a legitimate function of the school library.

School librarians need to be aware of the unstated objectives of the country's education system as well as the formal statements of aims and objectives. The school library and the various activities carried out by the library should relate to these objectives.

3.2 METHODS AND ORGANISATION OF INSTRUCTION

The way in which a country's education system is organised and the various methods employed in teaching and learning will affect the school library. If an education system emphasises that all students in a given grade should be undertaking the same topics of study at the same time, the library might need to concentrate on collecting multiple copies of information resources, usually print resources. However, if students are encouraged to engage in independent study based on resource based learning, a different type of school library collection would be needed.

Teachers who mostly lecture would expect different services from the school library than would teachers who might involve the students in considerable individual assignment work. If a school system has central standardised examinations for all students, the school library needs to provide information resources and services which will assist students in passing the examinations. The programme organised by a school library will be influenced by the teaching and learning strategies organised in a particular country.

The purpose of a school library is to support and contribute to the total school programme. This means that the purpose of a school library will be determined by the purpose of the education system in a particular country. School libraries must fit into the total education system of a country and cannot exist as isolated units. School libraries that attempt to function without taking into account, the aims and objectives of education as well as the methods and organisation of instruction in a particular country will never be considered really important or useful.

3.3 DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE

In most countries of the world, the concept of school library service is a new one. School libraries have existed in some countries for a long time. A school ordinance passed in 1578 in Shrewsbury, England stated that:

> *There shall be a library and gallerie. Furnished for schools with all manner of books, mappes and spheres and instruments of astronomy and all other things appertaining to learning which may be given to schools and procured with the school's money.*

This description of a school library written more than four hundred years ago would fit a modern school library. Unfortunately most schools did not develop any library services until recently. Even in the industrialised countries widespread school libraries did not come into existence earlier than twenty years ago. A 1935 survey of Australian libraries, *the Munn-Pitt Report,* stated that there was not one school in the entire country which had all the elements of satisfactory school library service. It was not until the late 1960's that widespread school library service was developed in Australia.

In most countries, secondary or high schools received the emphasis in the development of effective school library and information service. By the late 1970's almost all secondary or high schools in Australia had an adequate school library service. The same situation had not developed in primary schools. When considering the history of the development of school libraries in various parts of the world, it becomes obvious that a higher priority has been given to establishing high school libraries over primary school libraries. This is somewhat unfortunate, for primary school children might well be more receptive to new ideas about learning than high school students and might well receive most benefit from a good school library programme.

Today in Scandinavian countries, Australia, Canada and the United States school library services are made available to the majority of students by the provision of a school library in individual schools. In other countries such as Great Britain and Holland, the establishment of individual school libraries has not been a high priority, and schools rely heavily on the public library to provide library service to the school.

In the Pacific Region, school libraries have not yet been established in most schools. Some schools have school libraries, but the concept of widespread school library service is new to most Pacific countries. As in other parts of the world, a country's education system needs to develop to a certain level before widespread library service is seen as important. In the Pacific countries the first school libraries were established in high schools, often in the elite academic high schools. School library service in the Pacific, as in other regions of the world, was first seen as something that would benefit the academically talented students. It was not seen as something needed by all students.

In most regions of the world, the development of school library service was left to individual schools and communities. There was no centralised agency to co-ordinate the establishment of school library service. Throughout the world in the early 1960's and continuing into the 1970's and 1980's, educational authorities began to realise that if all students were to benefit from school libraries, it was necessary to establish some type of co-ordinating and planning agency for school libraries. School library consultants were appointed to educational departments in countries such as Canada and Australia. These consultants work together as a team in what is usually known as a Schools Library Service. The name of the organisation may vary from country to country. In some countries such as Great Britain and Holland, consultants in school library development were appointed to the public library service, whilst in countries such as New Zealand, the consultants were appointed to the national library service.

School library development in most Pacific countries has been left to individual schools. If a school library placed high priority on establishing and maintaining a school library, then one would be developed. There was usually little external pressure from educational authorities to establish a school library, and very little assistance of any kind to do so. Schools did not have access to a central school library consultant service, and few trained school librarians were available to assist in the establishment of school libraries. Schools relied heavily on volunteers to establish and operate the libraries. Sometimes a teacher was assigned on a part time basis to library duties. Usually personnel working in school libraries had no formal education in library and information studies.

As in other regions of the world, educationalists in the Pacific began to be concerned about the lack of planned development of school libraries, and the absence of qualified staff to co-ordinate school library development. In 1976, a Unesco Regional Seminar on School Libraries was held in Perth, Australia. School librarians, school library educators and educators from Asia, Africa and the Pacific met to discuss school library development. A number of papers on the current state of school libraries in the region were presented. The seminar participants made a number of recommendations on the development of school libraries, and community libraries, as well as on the education of school librarians. *(Unesco, 1976).*

As a result of the 1976 regional seminar, a Unesco School Library Development Project was begun in the South Pacific. Unesco consultants visited the countries of the region on several occasions during the period, 1979 to 1981. School library collections were established in some schools within the region. Recommendations were made for the establishment of school libraries, and for the education of staff to work effectively in these libraries. Other international aid agencies also contributed to school library development in the region. The Australian Development Assistance Bureau funded library education projects in Tonga and Western Samoa, whilst the Canadian Information Development Agency provided assistance for development throughout the region.

The education of school library staff is seen as a high priority for the region. To highlight the problems and needs of the region, a Workshop on training courses for teachers and teacher librarians was held at the University of the South Pacific in Suva in October 1981. As a result of the workshop, a number of courses for the education of school library staff and school teachers were developed. It is hoped that each country in the region will have some fully educated and trained school librarians who can act as leaders in the evolution and growth of effective school library service. This should then allow all school students in the region to have access to a school library and to the services of a trained school librarian. In some Pacific countries such as Papua New Guinea, a School Library Service has been established in the National Library to co-ordinate and plan the development of school library service. The establishment of formal courses for school librarians is being recognised as a priority within the Pacific region. This is a pattern found throughout the world, as educators are realising that without trained school librarians, the school library can only have limited effectiveness.

School library development can be viewed in four stages. School libraries in the Pacific just as in other parts of the world can be placed in one of four stages of development:

Stage One - School libraries at this stage of development are places where books are kept in some kind of orderly arrangement. The books are not related to the school curriculum, are mostly fiction and provide recreational reading. These school libraries are not considered part of the instructional programme of the school and are usually isolated from the rest of the school. Stage one libraries are often considered to be "extra curricular" activities and are staffed by untrained volunteers or teachers assigned to the library part time.

Stage Two - School libraries at this stage of development have more non-fictional books than stage one libraries. These books are used for supplementary reading by the students but the school library and its programme is not closely related to the school's instructional programme. The staff in these libraries, usually teachers or library assistants working part time, teach library skills to the students. This teaching of library skills is isolated from the rest of the instructional programme of the school and is often not viewed as being very important by either students or teachers. Some stage two libraries include small collections of non-book resources to supplement the book collections.

Stage Three - These school libraries have collections that consist of both book and non-book resources. Most of the information resources in the school are housed in a central collection in the school library. This collection is organised in such a way that students and teachers can locate any particular item in the collection that they need. In order to involve the school library more closely with the school's instructional programme, library skills are taught in conjunction with a specific subject being studied. If students are studying the Plant Life of Tonga, they are given library skills lessons designed to show them how to locate information on the plants found in Tonga. School librarians at this stage are involved in providing reference service to students and teachers and finding information resources related to assignments and lessons. School library staff working at this stage of development have training in librarianship and education in order to function effectively.

Stage Four - At this stage of development, school libraries play an active rather than a passive role in the school's instructional programme. The library and its services are closely related to the philosophy and curriculum of a particular school. The school librarian is involved in curricular planning with the other members of the teaching staff.

The school library and the resources are seen as essential aspects of the learning process. Teachers and students expect to use the library in all of their programmes and many lessons are designed around the library and its resources. Students are encouraged to use the library to pursue their own interests. The school librarian is viewed as a member of the school's teaching team. The staff member assigned to run the library is a qualified school librarian and works full time in the library.

School libraries in many parts of the world have passed through similar stages of development and have had to overcome many of the same problems. In the Pacific region, the school libraries are developing through these stages of development and attempting to solve many of the same problems that have faced librarians and educators in other regions.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTIONS ONE TO THREE (3.1, 3.2, 3.3)

1. Identify and locate any formal statements of the purpose of education for your country. Relate these to the place of the school library in the education system of your country.

2. What are the unstated objectives of education? List, describe and explain the unstated objectives of the education system of your country.

3. List, describe and explain the four stages of development for school libraries.

3.4 SCHOOL LIBRARIES - AIMS AND FUNCTIONS

Just as other types of libraries have their own unique way of carrying out the basic functions of libraries as discussed in Unit 2 of this course, so do school libraries. It is generally accepted that libraries today have three major functions which will enable people to use library resources. These functions are:

1. *The acquisition of information;*
2. *The organisation of information;*
3. *The interpretation of information. (Shera, p. 65)*

A library must develop collections of information resources that will be useful to the users of that library. In the past a library collection consisted of books and other written materials. Today libraries acquire a wide range of resources including audiovisual resources, games, toys and computer records that have been selected to meet the information need of the library users.

To allow people to make the greatest use of a collection of information resources it is necessary that a library user is made aware of the location and availability of a particular item or piece of information that they need. Libraries, therefore, must have their collections organised in some manner so that resources can be obtained when needed by users. Library resources can be organised in a wide variety of ways - *by size,* - *by colour, or* - *by age or reader.* The most acceptable way to organise libraries in our society is to *classify resources by their subject.* The most common library classification systems such as the Dewey Decimal system and the Library of Congress system are based on subject classification.

The third accepted function of libraries in society is that of bringing the information resources and the library users together. This is the main reason for which libraries exist. However, the interpretation of information cannot be carried out without first acquiring and then organising the information resources of the library.

The way in which these functions are carried out will differ for each library. Each library must design its activities with the needs of the people who use the library in mind, as well as the special characteristics of the organisations which support the library. Each type of library such as a school library or a public library will have unique roles and functions but these will always be based on the three main functions of libraries: the *acquisition of information;* the *organisation of information* and the *interpretation of information*. School libraries acquire information, organise information and interpret that information for users, teachers and students. In the school library, these functions are carried out in relation to the library and information needs of the students and staff of a particular school. A school library exists to support the curriculum of a given school, and the library and its staff should be involved in the instructional programme of the school.

The modern school library has an active rather than a passive role to play in the school's instructional programme. The library and its programme are closely related to the curriculum and philosophy of a particular school. In fact, the role and function of a particular school library cannot be looked at in isolation from the school and the education system in which the library is located. There are some functions which should be common to all school libraries, although these will vary in detail from school to school. *Snow and Hauck (1973)* identify five functions which they consider should be common to all school library programmes.

These five functions are:

1. *Acquisition and organisation of information resources;*
2. *Support for the school curriculum;*
3. *Services to students;*
4. *Integration of subject disciplines;*
5. *Provision of professional service to teachers.*

The first of these functions, the acquisition and organisation of information resources is a function common to all types of library. No school library programme can function effectively without a collection made up of a range of information resources such as books, periodicals, sound tapes, pictures, filmstrips and models. In a school, information resources are selected which meet the information needs of the students and the teaching staff. These information resources must be organised in a manner which will allow students and teachers to locate a particular item to meet their individual needs at a given time.

The second of these functions is to provide support for the curriculum of the school. The school library staff should be involved with teachers in the design of instructional units, and also provide advice on what information resources can best be used to meet a given objective. The school librarian can also give professional advice as to how students and teachers can use these information resources to meet their learning objectives. As part of this advice, the school librarian has an important educational role in ensuring that students acquire a variety of skills in reading, viewing and listening, in order to make effective use of information resources in the school library.

The third of these functions common to school libraries is to provide services to students which will enable them to develop as autonomous learners. The library should have an atmosphere conducive to independent inquiry. Resources need to be provided to enable students to probe a subject in depth, or to explore topics in which they have developed an interest.

The fourth of these functions is the integration of all subject disciplines, i.e. removing the barriers between the various disciplines, and between the different types of information resources. The school library should be a place where the various components of the school curriculum, and the interests of the various academic disciplines to meet the individual needs of a student are brought together.

The fifth function common to all school library programmes is that of providing a professional service to teachers. The library should provide space for teachers to prepare and develop units of instruction, and to examine and review information resources which can be used in the instructional programme. A collection of professional resources should be provided for teachers. The school librarian will be trained in the evaluation, design and use of instructional resources. Teachers should be able to gain professional assistance from the school librarian in making use of particular resources in their teaching programme. The school library may also provide a service for teachers by designing and producing instructional resources for use in the classroom.

The extent to which these functions are carried out in any particular school library will depend upon a number of factors. The size of the school, the number and qualifications of the library staff, the teaching and learning strategies of the school and the finance available to purchase information resources, will all influence the importance placed on any particular function. All school libraries should acquire and organise resources, provide curriculum support, provide service to students and teachers and provide an integrating function for the school curriculum.

The school library has a place in the national library and information system of a country or region. Each type of library: public, national, special, academic and school has a unique role. In each country all of these libraries together with other information agencies make up the national library and information system or network.

No individual library, however large, can meet all of the library and information needs of its users. School libraries cannot. They must refer users to other sources of information when necessary. The staff of the school library must be aware of the other agencies in the community which provide information and refer users to these agencies when appropriate. School libraries should not duplicate the roles of other types of libraries. At times the information needs of the major users of the school library, students and teachers, may fall outside the role of the school library. A teacher may also be a part time university student of history and have information needs relating to this field of study. The school library, however, would not be the most appropriate agency to meet this information need, and the teacher cannot expect the school library to adopt the role in the national information system which belongs to academic or public libraries. The school library should refer the teacher to a more suitable information agency or arrange to obtain the needed resources from another agency via interlibrary loan.

If school libraries are to refer students and teachers to other information agencies and request information resources from these agencies, they must be willing to allow others to use the information resources of the school library. Co-operation is a two way process and no library can expect to use other agencies without being willing to share their own resources. At times, the school library will be an appropriate library for people who are normally users of other types of libraries, and these libraries might refer their users to the school library. Librarians all over the world are realising that they cannot operate in isolation, and co-operation between libraries is now a widely accepted activity.

The school library will usually be the initial point of access into the nation's library system for its users. Students and teachers will go to the school library with their information needs and the school library will refer them to other appropriate libraries when necessary or will arrange to obtain information resources from other libraries in the library system when needed.

A question often asked in schools is

Why have a school library?

A school library makes contributions both to the teaching/learning process and to the personal development of the sturents. The library does not exist just to catalogue books or answer reference questions. These tasks are performed only as part of the aims and objectives of the school and the education system.

Some of the contributions which the school library can make in the teaching/learning process are to:

(a) Provide print and non-print resources in line with the demands and interests of the teachers and students;

(b) Provide up-to-date resources which will enable students and teachers to be aware of new developments in a wide variety of fields;

(c) Guide students in their choice of information resources related to their educational needs;

(d) Interpret the resources and services of the library to the teaching staff and students, so that they can make effective use of them in the teaching/learning process;

(e) Promote the development of reading skills and encourage the reading habit. Students who learn to read do not necessarily become readers or remain literate and they need to be exposed to a wide variety of interesting and challenging reading resources to insure that they retain good reading skills and habits;

(f) Encourage long term learning habits in reading, listening to, and viewing a variety of information resources;

(g) Educate students to study independently by providing a wide range of information resources for class projects and individual assignments;

(h) Develop in students, skill and resourcefulness in their use of libraries and information resources.

In addition to contributing to the teachering/learning process the school library also aims to help the personal development of the students. Some of the aims of the school library in personal development are to:

(a) Develop acceptable social attitudes;
(b) Help students establish a wide range of significant interests by exposing them to a variety of information resources;
(c) Make students aware of the range of information and cultural agencies in the community and to integrate the services offered by the agencies;
(d) Guide students in the choice of books for personal reading;
(e) Provide aesthetic experiences and to assist in the development of an appreciation of the arts;
(f) Develop an appreciation of the student's own culture and heritage by exposing them to a range of resources about their own society;
(g) Provide students with vocational information which will assist them in choosing a suitable career;
(h) Provide students with resources which will assist them in understanding the process of maturing to take an eventual adult role in society;
(i) Provide students with resources that will assist them in understanding human relationships.

The school library aims to make a variety of contributions in both the teaching/learning process and in the individual personal development of students. In order to achieve these aims the library performs a wide variety of functions such as selecting and ordering resources or lending resources. The library does not exist just to carry out these functions, they are carried out by library staff to meet the aims of the library. Such functions are:

(a) selecting, ordering and accessing information resources;
(b) cataloguing and classifying information resources;
(c) preparing and protecting information resources;
(d) lending information resources to users;
(e) providing a reference and information service for users;
(f) teaching users how to use information resources effectively;
(g) promoting the services available from the school library.

You will learn more about each of these areas in Units Four, Five and Six of this course.

3.5 SCHOOL LIBRARY STAFF

School libraries are staffed by two different types of staff member

(a) school librarian: a trained teacher who is in charge of the school library and who has qualifications in teaching and in library studies;

(b) school library assistant: a person who is not a trained teacher, but who should have completed a training programme in librarianship e.g. the University of the South Pacific Certificate in Librarianship.

In addition, some school libraries employ clerical workers who have no training in library studies. Many school libraries ask for unpaid assistance from volunteers, usually students or parents.

The role of the school librarian is primarily that of an educator, in both the formal and informal aspects of education. While they might not operate in a traditional classroom, they are nevertheless teachers. They devise learning situations in the school library; they assist students in learning; they select information resources in relation to the classroom, and they show teachers and students how to use these resources in teaching and learning. School librarians are also responsible for the effective administration and organisation of the school library.

The school library assistant works under the direction of the school librarian and has a role in carrying out the day to day library tasks that will enable students and staff to use the library. The school library assistant will operate the various systems designed by the school librarian.

In small schools, where there is only a school librarian, the school librarian will need to carry out some of the tasks normally carried out by school library assistants. However, when possible the school librarian should be freed from spending large amounts of his/her time carrying out library routines so that they can devote themselves to their educational role. When there is no school library assistant, school librarians can use volunteers to perform tasks normally carried out by the school library assistant.

The duties undertaken weekly by a school librarian are many and varied. They can be divided into six broad areas as follows:

1. *Involvement in the school's reading, listening and viewing programme;*
2. *Involvement in the school learning programme;*
3. *Meeting teacher needs;*
4. *Administration;*
5. *Needs of the community;*
6. *Professional activities.*

We shall now examine each of these broad areas.

1. Involvement in the school's reading, listening and viewing programme

- (a) Planning and conducting book talks, story hours, film viewings, radio broadcasts etc. within the school library, and within the classroom;
- (b) Planning and directing special observances of book week, library week, education week and other similar special occasion weeks, thematic displays etc;
- (c) Providing resources for extra curricular and recreational interests;
- (d) Developing and directing individual reading guidance programmes;
- (e) Planning and supervising the preparation and arrangement of notice boards, displays and exhibits;
- (f) Identifying students with reading and study problems and developing strategies to overcome the problems;

(g) Organising other relevant promotional activities particularly designed at literacy development and maintenance.

2. Involvement in the school learning programme

(a) Introducing and orientating students and new teaching staff to the school library, its services and their use;
(b) Reviewing school library rules and procedures;
(c) Planning, in conjunction with the teaching staff a sequential programme of reading, viewing and listening skills instruction;
(d) Giving non-formal instruction in -
  (i) using resources and equipment,
  (ii) locating and understanding information,
  (iii) evaluating information,
  (iv) interpreting and presenting information.
(e) Assisting students in independent and small group study situations;
(f) Answering reference questions;
(g) Introducing information resources of special interest to small groups and class groups;
(h) Conducting, in conjunction with classroom teachers, structured class visits to the school library.

3. Meeting staff needs

(a) Assisting individual teachers, including specialist teachers in curriculum development and planning;
(b) Planning co-operatively with teachers to co-ordinate school library resources and activities with curriculum programmes;
(c) Orientating teaching staff to resources, equipment, facilities and services available from the school library;
(d) Answering reference questions;

(e) Assisting teachers with the location and acquisition of information resources within the school library and other information agencies;

(f) Co-operatively planning and aiding the successful completion of class assignments involving the use of the school library, including team teaching activities;

(g) Informing teachers of new resources, equipment and services through bulletins, talks at staff meetings, special notices, acquisition lists etc;

(h) Providing and promoting the use of professionally related information resources;

(i) Organising and conducting in-school in-service sessions for teachers relating to information resources, school library services and equipment use.

4. Administration

(a) Planning arrangement of library space, furniture and equipment;

(b) Scheduling use of school library facilities;

(c) Preparing school library staff work schedules;

(d) Training and supervising school library staff;

(e) Interpreting and implementing school policies and directives with school library staff, and school library policy to teaching staff;

(f) Developing and implementing library procedures and policies;

(g) Co-operative planning with, and reporting to, the school principal concerning library operations, programmes, budgets, etc;

(h) Training and supervising volunteers;

(i) Liaising with other teachers, librarians and relevant information agencies concerning school library programmes, curriculum needs and information resource needs.

5. Needs of the community

   (a) Organising special school library displays for parents;
   (b) Organising and participating in activities for parents e.g. reading classes, adult education;
   (c) Liaising with the public librarian concerning the school's educational programme, curriculum development work, assignments and joint library activities;
   (d) Publicising community activities through the school library.

6. Professional activities

   (a) Attending and participating in meetings of professional organisations;
   (b) Reading current professional literature such as books and periodical articles;
   (c) Participating in conferences, workshops and in-service courses;
   (d) Visiting other schools and school libraries to observe their programmes, organisation and facilities.

The school library assistant acts under the direction of the school librarian. The tasks which are appropriate for the school library assistant to undertake are to:

(a) Prepare descriptive cataloguing for information resources to be included in the school library collection;
(b) Assign classification numbers to selected information resources;
(c) Assign subject headings or descriptors to selected information resources;
(d) Maintain circulation systems;
(e) Process interlibrary loan requests;
(f) Prepare, store and file vertical file material;

(g) Answer ready reference questions, and assist the school librarian with other reference enquiries;
(h) Assist in the planning of school library displays; set up school library displays and exhibits;
(i) Place and follow up orders for new information resources for the school library as directed;
(j) Accession, number , process and shelve new information resources;
(k) File catalogue cards and other related records;
(l) Take responsibility for the general tidiness of the school library;
(m) Supervise the activities of school library volunteers;
(n Type and duplicate resources required for the school library;
(o) Maintain audio-visual hardware and other equipment;
(p) Repair and preserve information resources as directed.

You may be able to think of other duties which may be undertaken by the school librarian and other tasks which may be undertaken by the school library assistant. Remember that the school librarian will have qualifications in both education and library studies, whilst the school library assistant may only have qualifications in library studies, usually at the library assistant level. In order to make the most effective use of library staff, education authorities should employ staff to perform duties and tasks at the appropriate level. It is not sensible for a school librarian who is both qualified in education and library studies to devote most of his/her time carrying out tasks which can be done by a school library assistant. If a school library is to be successful in achieving its educational role, it must have the services of a full time school librarian who is free to devote time to educational matters.

Some school libraries may employ clerical workers to undertake some of the tasks necessary for effective school library and information service. These tasks are usually of an administrative nature, and do not normally involve face to face contact with students or teachers. The clerical worker has no training in library studies, and usually needs to be given on-the-job training to perform the specified tasks with a high degree of precision. The clerical worker often works on a part time basis, and always under the direction of the school librarian. Tasks often undertaken by clerical workers in a school library include:

(a) Typing and duplicating resources required for the school library;
(b) Cleaning the school library;
(c) Maintaining accession and accounting records;
(d) Activities associated with ordering new information resources for the school library.

In some libraries, there may not be a school library assistant, and some of the tasks listed earlier for the school library assistant may become part of the job statement of the clerical worker. When this situation occurs, the school librarian will need to give on-the-job training to these workers.

Volunteers often form part of the school library workforce. They may be school students, parents or other interested members of the community. Volunteers can be useful in many ways, however, they should not be used to replace the school librarian or the school library assistant in order to save money. It is important that the school library be organised and managed by a person who has been educated and trained to undertake that role.

School students acting as volunteers can have an important role to perform in the operation of effective school library and information service. This pattern will vary from school to school, and particularly in relation to school policy. Under direction from the school librarian, students can assist in the following tasks.

(a) operating the circulation system;
(b) shelving information resources;
(c) filing cards and other associated records;
(d) cleaning the library;
(e) repairing and processing information resources.

You may be able to think of other ways in which students can be involved in the operation of the school library. One other way relates to the selection of new information resources for inclusion in the school library. Students can help the school librarian at the selection stage, as the opinion of students is important when choosing new information resources. Help from students can be purely voluntary on their part, and their involvement motivated usually by their interest in reading and their desire for knowledge. Sometimes their involvement will result from their need to be part of a team which is providing a service to the school and its community.

In schools, students often have a role to play in the operation of the school. This pattern will vary between countries and you will know in your country how involved students are in helping the school to operate. Ways in which students can help in operating the school include:

(a) cleaning the classrooms;
(b) growing food for students and teachers, particularly if the school is residential;
(c) repairing school buildings;
(d) keeping the school garden under control;
(e) looking after younger children in relation to reading aloud, telling stories and other similar activities.

You may be able to think of other activities. The concept is that all students make a contribution to the operation of the school, and that this involvement is part of their education. One part of the school where this involvement can be undertaken is the school library.

Parents and other members of the community often wish to be involved as volunteers in the school. Their involvement can have many advantages, and can help the school be more a part of the community in which the school and students are located. Involvement by adult volunteers can be of the type discussed in 2.4 People as an information source. This involvement may include:

(a) recording and making information resources for use with the school's educational programme;
(b) talking with school students on a subject or topic in which the volunteer has special knowledge or expertise e.g. boat building, fishing etc.;
(c) helping in the teaching of local languages.

Sometimes adult volunteers may not have the abilities and knowledge to participate as mentioned, but they have the enthusiasm and desire to be involved. The school librarian usually can find tasks which need to be done, and after some on-the-job training the adult volunteer can undertake these tasks. Some of these tasks may include:

(a) cleaning the school library;
(b) typing letters and other associated records;
(c) basic clerical tasks;
(d) repairing and processing information resources;
(e) assisting in other such tasks as shelving, bibliographic checking and filing.

On some occasions, adult volunteers are not able to be involved in the day to day operation of the school library. However, they may devote their time to raising funds which can be used for purchase of new information resources for inclusion in the school library collection. There are many methods of fund raising, and you should be able to identify these in relation to your own country.

Volunteers, whether students or adults from the community can have an important place in the achievement of the school's aims and objectives. They work with the school library assistant, and under the direction of the school librarian. Everyone works together as a team, in order that the school has an effective library and information service for the students, teachers and the community at large.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION SIX TO EIGHT (3.6, 3.7, 3.8)

1. List, describe and explain the five functions of school libraries.

2. Outline how the school library contributes to the teaching/learning process.

3. List and explain the different levels of staffing found in a school library.

4. (a) Differentiate between the terms school librarian and school library assistant.
   (b) List, describe and explain the duties of a school librarian.
   (c) List, describe and explain the tasks of a school library assistant.

UNIT III

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COURSE II

UNIT IV Selection, Evaluation of Information Resources for Schools

INTRODUCTION

This unit aims to introduce to students the criteria for selection and evaluation of resources and to the building of school library collections.

The unit is divided into seven (7) sections as follows:

1. Selection criteria
2. Selection tools and aids for schools
3. Building a school library collection
4. Selection of curriculum resources
5. Selection of information resources for general and personal interests
6. Audiovisual resources and equipment
7. The school library and the development of reading, listening and viewing.

The section Selection Criteria considers information needs and interests of students.

The section Selection Tools and Aids for Schools provides a recommended listing of published selection aids.

The section Building a Library Collection discusses the development of a written collection development policy and discusses the points to be considered in building a collection.

The section Selection of Curriculum Resources discusses the importance of learning objectives as guidelines for selection and then considers general evaluation criteria.

The section Selection of Information Resources for General and Personal Interests discusses the basic needs of children and young people, the stages of their growth and development, followed by a discussion of basic categories of books for general and personal interests.

The section Audiovisual Resources and Equipment considers types of such resources which require special equipment and those that do not. Evaluation criteria is provided for the selection of equipment as well as an equipment maintenance programme.

The section The School Library and the Development of Reading, Listening and Viewing gives guidance in developing development programmes as well as techniques to be used.

4.1 SELECTION CRITERIA

In Unit 3, The School Library, An Overview, the following statement is made:

> *In a school, information resources are selected which meet the information needs of the students and the teaching staff.*

How are these information needs ascertained? Studies of childrens' reading interests have indicated that there are two primary factors involved:

(i) Interest
(ii) Motivation

Interest is individual and dynamic and can be an important driving force in children learning to read but motivation can increase interest, particularly if teachers and librarians are skilled in understanding young people and relating personal needs to types of information resources and at the same time ensuring the student is given recognition when he/she succeeds in reading these information resources.

Other general factors that must be considered when selecting information resources for students are:

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Intelligence
4. Teacher Attitudes
5. Family Background
6. Accessibility

1. Age. Research has established that there are general trends in reading interest and level according to age and the following table from *Robert Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching* can be used as a guide to

developing a table to reflect children's needs and interests at various stages of development in your country.

	CHARACTERISTICS OF	
SUBJECT OF FAVORITE STORIES	STORY LINE	BOOK
Age: preschool Animal and nature stories Fairy tales (simple) Familiar people, things, settings Finger play verses Jingles Nursery rhymes Rhythms	Is repetitive in text. Demands some participation, as in touching and naming. Enables child's name to be inserted for real characters. Is quite simple. Introduces poetry.	Is colorful, or has bold figures (if done in black and white) on every page. Has an attractive, sturdy cover and large type. Is lap-size. Has occasional "pop-out" quality. Has more pictures than text. Is 24-48 pages in length.
Ages: six through eight Animals (pets and talking beasts) Fairy tales (simple) Familiar environment (family, play, school) Fanciful tales Humor and nonsense (slapstick) Mechanical devices, (cars, tractors, etc.) Real-life stories	Has a real plot (suspense and action). Is fast-paced, with action. Is brief and can be completed in one sitting. Helps reader identify with the character. Is convincing and understandable. Is easy to read, with simple vocabulary, short sentences.	Is eye-catching. Has large, clear type. Has 25 per cent or more of page space given to illustrations. Colored illustrations in preference to black and white. Synchronizes picture and text. Is 50 to 60 pages long, if fiction, less if nonfiction.

SUBJECT OF FAVORITE STORIES	CHARACTERISTICS OF	
	STORY LINE	BOOK
Ages: nine through eleven Adventure Animals (wild or tame, real or fanciful; dog stories for boys; horse stories for girls) Biography Different countries and people History and historical fiction Humor Invention Mechanics Poetry Science and science experiments Sports and games (boys) Tall tales	Has a vivid action plot. Has solid worth and appeal. Uses amusing words and names. Employs exaggeration and absurdity. Begins quickly. Concentrates on the conversations. Uses the characters to carry out the plot. Has action, atmosphere, and strong characterization.	Is 100 pages or more in length. Has type that is neither too large nor too small. Has accurate illustrations that contribute to the book. Has uncluttered margins. Has open appearance and lively drawings. Uses sentences that are not too long nor involved.
Ages: twelve through fourteen Adventure and mystery American life (pioneer and present) Biography Career stories (girls) Fantasy History Humor Myths, legends, hero tales People of other lands Romance (girls) Science and science fiction (boys) Sports (boys) World affairs	Is fast moving, and forceful. Helps reader meet his personal problems. Stresses individuality. Is accurate and detailed, if nonfiction. Has sharply delineated characters. Has extensive plot and characterization.	Has eye appeal. Is brief (a preference of boys). Has attractive illustrations (but they are not the primary reason for acceptance or rejection). Is designed basically to appeal to boys, although many books for girls alone are available.

2. Sex. You probably have observed that there are some differences in interests of boys and girls in your school. Again research has indicated that boys are more interested in sports and adventures while girls are interested in families and friends. Also that as boys get older they tend to be more limited in reading interests while girls develop broader and more varied reading interests. Both enjoy stories that they can "live" vicariously.

3. Intelligence. As with chronological age, intelligence affects reading level and interest. In recent years specific types of reading resources have been developed with high interest and low reading level as a means of motivating poorer readers. There are a number of readability formulas which can be used in assessing the level of resources in relation to a particular student. Most teachers would be aware of such formulas and are trained in their application. The school librarian should work with the teacher, making available relevant information resources recommended by teachers.

4. Teacher Attitudes are extremely important in relation to selection of information resources and the school librarian must be aware of these in relation to each member of the teaching staff. The school librarian may be able to widen teachers' knowledge of the variety of information resources, particularly non-book resources. It is important to remember that teachers have been educated and trained in the growth and development of young people and in the appropriate methods of learning and as such can be of considerable help and guidance in the selection of information resources and in the building of the school library collection.

5. Family Background. Every student is influenced by their family and community background, particularly in relation to family attitudes to school and to reading and learning

generally. The educational level of parents and other members of the family as well as the family's interests, values and attitudes will influence what information resources the student selects.

6. Accessibility of information resources to the student is important. The ease with which students can borrow resources either from the school library or from a classroom collection will often be a deciding factor in students' motivation to use information resources. Restrictions placed on using the school library at certain times or in limiting the use of certain information resources can be detrimental to students' development.

It is possible for you to identify students needs and interests by observation, by talking with students and with teachers, and if desirable through a quizz with the students themselves. As well as these general factors listed above, information resources should be selected in relation to the curriculum being taught in the school. The school library exists to support the curriculum and the general development of students.

When selecting information resources for the curriculum the following general points should be considered.

1. Selection is a co-operative process and should involve teachers, students and school library staff. Curriculum Co-ordinators, where available, should be consulted.

2. Selection of information resources for the curriculum should be based on the general aims and objectives of the school curriculum and the specifications of the individual curriculum eg. for social studies, for reading, for history, etc.

3. Selection for specific curriculum to be effective must be based on a reading and understanding of printed curriculum

documents or on an involvement in the design of school-based curriculum, as part of a school team including teachers and the librarian.

4. Selection must be within the general guidelines of the school library's selection policy approved by teaching staff and the school principal.

5. Selection must be based on the age and reading level of the students for whom the curriculum is designed.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercises after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete these exercises from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercise.

SECTION ONE (4.1)

1. List the six general factors to be considered when selecting information resources for students.

2. Revise the table on children's needs and interests at various stages of development so it could be used in your country to select reading materials.

4.2 SELECTION TOOLS AND AIDS FOR SCHOOLS

As well as the range of basic reference resources discussed in Unit 5 Using Information Resources, there are a number of specific selection tools and aids for the school library. The majority of these aids are produced and published in England and the United States and are designed to meet the needs of school libraries in those countries.

This section lists below the most relevant of these published aids and it will be important for the school librarian to evaluate their use in relation to their own country.

Ideally selection of resources should be carried out by personally reviewing the actual resources. However this is not possible for a number of reasons, including:

(i) the vast amount of published resources
(ii) the unavailability of the actual resources themselves in bookshops and book suppliers in all countries.

The approach that should be taken is to select from a selection or reviewing aid which offers one means of seeing a range of what is published. It is important, where possible, not to depend entirely for selection on what resources are found in local bookshops. However, where there are few booksellers and where the country is at a considerable distance from other book suppliers there will naturally be difficulties in selecting from printed resources and ensuring receipt of the resources selected from such aids.

The few aids published in Australia and New Zealand are marked with an asterisk * as these may provide more assured access to book suppliers in Australia.

As well as these aids there are some general textbooks which include chapters on selection of resources together with recommended selection aids. Two of these general textbooks which you should consult are:

WOFFORD, Axile. *Book Selection for School Libraries*. N.Y., Wilson, 1962

PROSTANO, Emanual T. *The School Library Media Center*. Littleton, Colo. Libraries Unlimited, 1971.

Some selection aids:

Monographs

A.L.A. American Assoc. of School Librarians. *Paperback Books for Children*. N.Y., Citation Press, 1972.

A.L.A. Assoc. for Library Service to Children. *Let's Read Together: Books for Family Enjoyment*. 4th ed., Chicago, A.L.A., 1981.

A.L.A. Children's Services Division. *Notable Children's Books: 1940-1970*. Chicago, A.L.A., 1977.

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BOYLE, D. and CALVERT, S. *Children's Media Market Place*. Syracuse, N.Y., Gaylord, 1978.

CARLSEN, G.R. *Books and the Teen-age Reader*. 2nd rev. ed., New York, Harper & Row, 1980.

Chosen for Teenagers: a Selection of Modern Fiction. London, National Book League, 1970.

CROUCH, M. and ELLIS, A. *Chosen for Children*. 3rd ed. London, Library Assoc., 1977.

EGOFF, S. *One Ocean Touching: Papers from the First Pacific Rim Conference on Children's Literature*. Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Press, 1979.

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BREWTON, J.E., et al. Index to Poetry for Children and Young People. N.Y., H.W. Wilson, 1964-69. (plus updates).

CIANCIOLO, P.J. Picture Books for Children. 2nd ed. Chicago, A.L.A., 1981.

COHEN, M.D. Excellent Paperbacks for Children. Washington, D.C. Assoc. for Childhood Education International, 1979.

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DILL, B.E. Children's Catalog. 13th ed. N.Y., H.W. Wilson, 1976. (plus supp.)

FREND, P.M. Junior Fiction Index. London, Assoc. of Assistant Librarians, 1971.

GILLESPIE, J.T., and GILBERT, C.B. Best Books for Children: Pre-school Through the Middle Grades. 2nd ed. N.Y., R.R. Bowker, 1981.

GRAVES, M., et al. Easy Reading: Book Series and Periodicals for Less Able Readers. Newark, Del., I.R.A., 1979.

• HUBBLE, G.V., and EWERS, J.K. Modern Australian Fiction: a Bibliography and Survey. Perth, Hubble, 1969.

IRWIN, L.B. Guide to Historical Fiction: For the Use of Schools, Libraries and the General Reader. 10th ed. Brooklawn, N.J., McKinley Pub., 1971.

* *The New Classics: a Selection of Award-winning Children's Books*. Sydney, L.A.A. - N.S.W., 1975

* N.S.W. Department of Education. Library Services. *Children's Book List*. Sydney, L.S., 1972- . (annual).

* N.S.W. Department of Education Library Services. *Library Books for Children with Reading Difficulties*. 2nd ed. Sydney, L.S., 1978.

* RICHARDSON, J.A., et al. *Books for the Retarded Reader*. 6th ed. Hawthorn, Vic., Australian Council for Educational Research, 1977.

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TUCKER, A. *Poetry Books for Children*. Stroud, Eng., Thimble Press, 1977.

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* WILLARD, P. and KEITH, J. *Books for Children With Language Difficulties*. 3rd ed. Kensington, Univ. of N.S.W., 1978.

WITHROW, D., at al. *Gateways to Readable Books: an Annotated Graded List of Books in Many Fields for Adolescents who Find Reading Difficult*. 5th ed. New York, H.W. Wilson, 1975.

Serials

* *Australian Book Review* (new series). Prahran, Vic., National Book Council. (10 times a year).

* *Australian Journal of Reading*. Adelaide, Aus. Reading Assoc. (quarterly).

* *Australian School Librarian*. East Melbourne, School Library Assoc. of Victoria. (quarterly).

Bookbird. Vienna, I.B.B.Y. and International Institute for Children's Literature and Reading Research. (quarterly).

Books for the Teen Age. New York, New York Public Library. (annually).

Center for Children's Books - Bulletin. Dhicago, Univ. of Chicago Press. (monthly, except August).

Children's Book Review. Wormley, Herfordshire, Five Owls Press. (quarterly).

Growing Point. Northampton, U.K., Margery Fisher. (9 times a year)

Horn Book Magazine: About Books for Children and Young Adults. Boston, Horn Book Inc. (6 times a year)

In Review: Canadian Books for Children. Toronto, Provincial Library Service. (quarterly)

Junior Bookshelf. Thurstonland, Huddersfield, Marsh Hall. (6 times a year).

* Orana: Journal of School and Children's Librarianship. Oatley, N.S.W., L.A.A. (quarterly).

* Reading Time. Curtin, A.C.T. Children's Book Council of Australia. (quarterly)

* Review. Adelaide, South Australia Department of Education. (quarterly)

School Librarian. Oxford, School Library Association. (quarterly)

School Library Journal. Whitinsville, Mass., R.R. Bowker. (monthly, September to May).

* Teacher Librarian. Waverley, N.S.W., School Library Association of N.S.W. (quarterly)

Top of the News. Chicago, A.L.A. (quarterly)

Wilson Library Bulletin. N.Y., H.W. Wilson. (monthly, except July and August).

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

SECTION TWO (4.2)

1. Familiarise yourself with as many of the aids listed under Serials by consulting them in libraries of your country.

2. Read Chapter No. 4 Media in the textbook by Prostano.

4.3 BUILDING A SCHOOL LIBRARY COLLECTION

Each school needs to develop a written school library policy which states the broad aims and objectives of the library and its relation to the general aims of education within the school. In addition to this general school library policy, specific policies on the functions or activities of the school library should be developed. One such specific policy is a collection development policy for the school library.

A collection development policy should be prepared by the school librarian in consultation with the principal and the teaching staff. The purpose of such a policy is to state what the school librarian and the teaching staff will do in relation to developing the school library's collection of information resources.

The written policy should include the specific school library's policy in relation to the following points:

(i) Relate to the educational philosophy and policy of the country and of the specific school.

(ii) Recognise the primary aims of the school - teaching and learning; and the information resources to support this primary aim as well as the need for general resources for personal development of students.

(iii) Recognise the rights and differences of individual students as well as group student levels; and the variety of types of resources as well as intellectual levels of the resources to support these rights and differences.

(iv) Recognise the need for selection without censorship and at the same time be accountable for the varying maturity of students to accept personal responsibility for selecting their own resources.

(v) Include the criteria for selection of information resources.

(vi) Identify responsibilities for selection between school librarian, teaching staff and principal.

In building a school library collection there are a number of considerations which can best be discussed under the following headings:

1. Educational aims and objectives
2. Stated curriculum and its objectives
3. Students' needs, interests and abilities
4. Teaching methods and strategies
5. School/community environment
6. Criteria for selection
7. The existing collection
8. Other libraries'/information agencies' collections
9. Financial resources

1. Educational aims and objectives, were discussed in Unit 3 where an example of the aims and objectives of primary education in Western Samoa was given. These aims are usually broad and emphasise - a wide variety of learning experiences, the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes and skills, the opportunity to understand and appreciate the child's cultural heritage and the fostering of the total development of the child growing towards maturity. Such aims must be emphasised and elaborated by the provision of information resources in the school library's collection which supports such aims.

2. Stated curriculum and its objectives. The collection must be developed to include information resources which will support each part of the school's curriculum, that is all teaching subjects such as reading, mathematics, history, social studies, health and hygiene etc. In addition there are both craft and skill courses in every school's curriculum eg. woodwork, pottery, sewing, cooking. Also

there will be physical education subjects taught in the school. Information resources on all these curriculum areas must be included in the school library's collection.

3. Students' needs, interests and abilities were discussed in Section I of this unit, where student interest and motivation as well as recognition of achievement were emphasised; as well as general characteristics of students which determine need, such as age, sex, intelligence and family background.

4. Teaching methods and strategies need to be analysed and understood by the school librarian, because these will affect the building of the school library collection. If the teaching staff in a school use only a textbook and no other information resources in teaching, the students will probably not use the library, or if they do they may require more reference resources than additional lending resources. If a teacher utilises discussion sessions, quizzes, games and puzzles in learning sessions or endeavours to meet individual student differences by using books, films and tapes then such teaching methods must be considered when building the school library collection. Even when a teacher does not use varied teaching methods and resources, the school librarian should still provide varied resources and endeavour to interest students in these when they come to the school library.

5. School/community environment is an important consideration for every aspect of school library provision. In building a collection the school librarian should be aware of the type of community - urban or rural; the industries, commercial and government enterprises where people work; the historical and cultural background of the students; the family life and the social, economic and political environment of the community. All these factors should be considered when building the collection of information resources for the school library.

6. Criteria for selection will influence the collection. This criteria, which will be discussed more fully in the following sections of this Unit, is also discussed in the two general textbooks given in Section 2 of this Unit. In one of these, Prostano's *The School Library Media Center,* the generally-agreed criteria for selection is given as:

> "1. *Authenticity: Is the resource accurate and up-to-date? What are the qualifications of the author or producer?*
>
> 2. *Appropriateness: Is the resource appropriate to the subject matter? Are the vocabulary, content, concepts, theme, suited to the intended audience?*
>
> 3. *Content: Does it have an organised, well balanced presentation? Does it relate to the needs of students? Does it provide outlines, charts, graphs, etc., which would be helpful to the user?*
>
> 4. *Interest: Will the message contained in the resource hold the attention of the user? Is it stimulating? Imaginative?*
>
> 5. *Technical Quality: Is the quality of production adequate - format, audio and visual qualities, ease of handling, use of colour?"*

7. The Existing Collection will naturally effect the way in which future collection building is carried out. If the existing collection is predominantly fiction, more emphasis may have to be given to selecting and purchasing curriculum related materials. If there are few resources for backward readers, or only out-of-date resources in science, then the school librarian must consider these existing factors and balance the building of the collection of information resources for the school library accordingly.

8. Other Libraries/Information Agencies Collections are important considerations when building a school library collection. If there is a well developed public library willing to lend its resources to the school library, then the public library may provide the information resources about the cultural heritage of the students for instance. If there is a good library for the High Commission of a particular country it may be possible to rely on that

collection for any needs by the school students for information resources on that country. If there is a separate national film collection then the school librarian may not collect any films for the school library. The school librarian must consider all these other agencies and their collections of resources when building the school library collection.

9. Financial Resources available to the school librarian will be a most important factor controlling the building of the collection and care will be required to allocate what finance is available in selecting the most relevant and appropriate information resources. At the same time the school librarian will also acquire all relevant resources which are free of charge for the school library collection.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercises after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete these exercises from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercises.

SECTION THREE (4.3)

1. List the nine points which need to be considered when building a school library collection.

2. What specific criteria of selection should be considered?

4.4 SELECTION OF CURRICULUM RESOURCES

A number of general points were given in Section I of this Unit in relation to this aspect emphasising the co-operative process between teaching staff and the school librarian, the importance of general aims of the school curriculum as well as the aims of the specific subject areas.

The learning objectives set out in each curriculum/subject area are guidelines for selection of resources. Selecting appropriate resources to use in particular learning situations must be done co-operatively with the teacher, but as school librarian you should be aware of the relative effectiveness of particular types of information resources in meeting the stated educational objectives.

Learning objectives can emphasise:

(i) learning factual information, such as names, dates, definitions of terms;

(ii) learning visual identifications which involve visual cues to discriminate between one object and another and requires identification and naming of objects, words or symbols;

(iii) learning principles, concepts and rules;

(iv) learning procedures, carrying out a sequence of acts or operations in the correct order;

(v) performing skilled perceptual - motor acts in the performance of a particular task such as making a wooden box;

(vi) developing desirable attitudes, opinions and motivations.

The rough table given below has been prepared by an American writer, William J. Allen, which gives a rating for effectiveness to different types of instructional media or curriculum resources.

INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA STIMULUS RELATIONSHIPS TO LEARNING OBJECTIVES

INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA TYPE:	LEARNING OBJECTIVES: Learning Factual Information	Learning Visual Identifications	Learning Principles, Concepts and Rules	Learning Procedures	Performing Skilled Perceptual-Motor Acts	Developing Desirable Attitudes, Opinions & Motivations
Still Pictures	Medium	HIGH	Medium	Medium	low	low
Motion Pictures	Medium	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	Medium	Medium
Television	Medium	Medium	HIGH	Medium	low	Medium
3-D Ojbects	low	HIGH	low	low	low	low
Audio Recordings	Medium	low	low	Medium	low	Medium
Programed Instruction	Medium	Medium	Medium	HIGH	low	Medium
Demonstration	low	Medium	low	HIGH	Medium	Medium
Printed Textbooks	Medium	low	Medium	Medium	low	Medium
Oral Presentation	Medium	low	Medium	Medium	low	Medium

From: *Selecting Media for Learning. Wash. Assocation for Educational Communications and Technology, 1974.*

In summary, the school librarian should check the following steps when selecting curriculum resources in relation to specific learning objectives:

(i) analyse educational/learning objective;
(ii) analyse student characteristics (age, intelligence etc.);
(iii) decide on type of resource required;
(iv) check if equipment required to use resource and available in school;
(v) check existing collection to see if there are any resources already available in collection;
(vi) check cost and effectiveness of resource;
(vii) discuss with teaching staff before placing order for purchase.

As well as considering the resource for selection in relation to learning objectives, the school librarian must consider the resource in relation to standard criteria for selection.

In the previous section, a generally accepted list of criteria for selection was given - authenticity, appropriateness, content, interest, and technical quality. The following extract gives a much fuller discussion on criteria for the evaluation and therefore selection of information resources and is taken from *Sources of Brief Factual Information by J.B. Schmidt and B.P. Anderson. Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education, 1982.*

"Evaluation Criteria

Description and Evaluation

You may have difficulty distinguishing between the processes of description and evaluation when they are applied to the analysis of information resources. In discriminating between the two, it is useful to remember that description is essentially objective, and non-judgemental, whereas evaluation results from critical and analytical judgement. For example, we could say that the non-fiction book, Tracks by Joy Davidson, tells the story of her trek through the deserts of Central Australia with four camels and a dog; is 22cm tall; has 256 pages; and was published in 1980. All of these comments, relating to either the book's content or physical characteristics, are descriptive. On the other hand, we could say of the same book: it is a startling, hair-raising, and moving account of a women's search for meaning; it is the best book of its kind; the photographs are realistic and effectively portray scenes from the journey; the binding is sturdy; and the type size is excellent for casual reading. All of these statements involve a critical judgement and are evaluative.

Inevitably the two processes overlap, for description is an essential first step in evaluation. For example, if we say that an information resource is badly arranged, and cite evidence to prove our point, we are using description to support our evaluation. In other words, describing an information resource, or describing some aspects of it, often provides the evidence upon which evaluation is based.

The evaluation criteria can be referred to by the mnemonic APPARATUS, which is a useful way of remembering the criteria to be considered in evaluation.

A	Authority
P	Purpose, Price
P	Physical format, Pictures
A	Arrangement
R	Recency
A	Accuracy and Appropriateness
T	Treatment
U	Use
S	Scope

APPARATUS

A. AUTHORITY. The authority, reputation or standing of both the author(s) and the publisher should be examined. The author may be one individual, several individuals, an organisation or an editorial board. The qualifications of the author and their appropriateness to the subject covered should be established. Read the introduction, and check biographical sources if the qualifications are not listed. Where many individuals are involved in the production of sources, for example, an atlas, the publisher's authority will be more important.

P. PURPOSE, PRICE. The purpose, or WHY a work has been written and WHAT it is trying to achieve, must be determined. A quick reading of the introduction or preface should reveal this information. The publisher's notice or the book jacket may be helpful also. The evaluative question must be posed: "Has the author fulfilled the purpose?" Scan the text, trying to determine if the work does all it purports to do.

The element of price in evaluation involves assessing whether the resource is worth the money. Purchasers of information resources must consider not only the excellence or usefulness of the resource, but also whether it represents good value for money and what proportion of the available funds it will consume. In evaluating the physical appearance and attractiveness of resources, remember that improvements might increase the price and reduce the market. The high price of an item does not necessarily guarantee its usefulness. An inexpensive pamphlet may be more useful than an expensive encyclopaedia.

P. PHYSICAL FORMAT, PICTURES. Binding and paper should be examined for colour, quality and durability. Materials which encounter heavy use require durable bindings and covers. Print size, typeface, page-layout, style of headings and size of margins should be checked for legibility, attractiveness, and suitability for intended use and user. Books intended for children and older people require a larger type size, and generous margins.

In certain resources, pictures or illustrations are important. When included, they should be up-to-date, clear, well-captioned, suitably located, preferably in colour, and of an appropriate size to complement the textual material. Ask the question, "Do they enhance the text?" Similar evaluation criteria apply to diagrams, tables, maps and charts.

A. ARRANGEMENT. Sources of brief factual information should be arranged in a way which facilitates quick access to the information they contain. They should be systematically arranged - for example, alphabetically by author or subject or topic, or chronologically. Unless completely self-explanatory, clear and succinct instructions for use should be included. As well as the arrangement of the entire work, arrangement within sections should be examined - for example, the way in which lengthy articles in encyclopaedias are divided.

The inclusion of an index the postion and arrangement of the table of contents and other sections may be vital for the effective use of a resource. Terminology employed in the index should reflect the search terms users are most likely to utilise. Cross references may also be necessary. (Note that in some resources cross references are found in the text rather than in the index). The lack of an index or the provision of one which is inadequate may prevent the retrieval of the contents of a work. To judge the effectiveness of the index, read a section of the text, and then try to locate the appropriate entries in the index.

R. RECENCY, REVISION. The up-to-dateness and currency of most resources' sources of brief factual information is vital. The date of publication should always be examined, and the actual contents of the work compared with this date. Also, the dates of material included in bibliographies can be useful for checking how up-to-date a particular work is. Be careful in evaluating on this basis, however, for a particular topic a work published in 1960 may still in 1980 be the most recent authoritative work. Sometimes indirect evidence, such as style of dress in illustrations, provides a clue. Information on topics like science and politics increases and changes so rapidly that a resource must be as up-to-date as possible. However, resources dealing with other subjects like history may not date as rapidly. There is frequently a delay of at least six months and possibly two years, between collection and organisation of material and publication. Check the introduction for information on how the resource will be updated. This might be by the publication of new editions, by continuous revision (each reprint contains a percentage of new material), or by the issue of inserts or cumulations.

A. ACCURACY AND APPROPRIATENESS. Determining the accuracy of the content of information resources is often difficult. Checking the treatment of a familiar subject, seeking advice from specialists, or reading published reviews will all help. The authority of the author(s) or publisher will also be a reasonable guarantee of accuracy.

Two additional factors to consider when examining a resource for accuracy are objectivity and bias. If a resource presents all viewpoints on a topic, it is considered to be an objective presentation. Even if a resource adopts certain cultural, geographic, ideological, intellectual, practical or moral viewpoints, it need not be thought of as biased IF these emphases are fully stated. For example, an encyclopaedia designed for the American market may devote considerable space to American affairs and history. Some sources even adopt a more obviously particular viewpoint - for example, the *Great Soviet Encyclopedia* interprets events from a communist viewpoint, whereas *The New Catholic Encyclopedia* gives a Catholic interpretation. Provided that such emphases are fully acknowledged, they do not constitute bias and are not legitimate grounds for condeming the resource. However, an acknowledged emphasis may make a resource unsuitable for a particular purpose, for example an American handbook of etiquette in an Australian library.

Bias, then, is unacknowledged emphasis on a particular viewpoint or culture. In addition, the silent suppression of alternative viewpoints or interpretations constitutes bias. An example of this would be an encyclopaedia which claimed to be universal but ignored third world countries, or claimed to be non-sectarian but did not mention alternative viewpoints on moral issues.

T. TREATMENT. An information resource may treat a subject at various levels. For example:

(1) At a popular level, aimed at the general interest reader.
(2) At a scholarly level, aimed at the specialist user.
(3) At a simplified level, aimed at the juvenile reader, or new reader.

The level of treatment is indicated by language (words used and grammatical construction), style (popular, scholarly or technical), complexity of verbal concepts, complexity of visual images and use of technical terms.

U. USE. This criterion is linked with the previous one, TREATMENT, in that the intended use will determine the level of treatment of the material. When examining a resource, ask the following questions:

- Who will use the resource?
- For what purpose will the resource be used?
- What kinds of questions could it be used to answer?

S. SCOPE. The broad scope of an information resource includes:

- The subject topics or areas it covers. These may be general or specific.

- The completeness of subject coverage.

Narrow scope refers to the scope of individual entries within a resource. How much information does each entry include? Does each entry have the same inclusions and format?

Key Points

Several key points should be stressed in evaluation. These criteria do not constitute rigid categories but often overlap. For example, scope cannot always be separated from purpose, treatment, or use.

When evaluating any given item, not all criteria may apply equally. One must ask, "Which criteria are relevant?" In other words, establishing priorities is necessary. Different criteria will assume priority for different categories. For example, 'recency' is most important in a Year Book. Some criteria may need to be disregarded under special circumstances. This might be true of a book on the local history of a Sydney suburb even if it is of poor quality in physical format or arrangement. It may be the only item available on this subject.

Finally, just because a resource is placed in a library or information centre's 'reference' collection, does not mean that it will be accurate. Even the *New Encyclopedia Britannica* has its faults - one of which was, at the time of its publication, listing the wrong Prime Minister for Australia. For this reason, it is essential to double-check all answers to queries in several sources wherever possible."

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercises after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete these exercises from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercise.

SECTION FOUR (4.4)

1. List the steps you should check when selecting curriculum resources.

2. Apply the Evaluation Criteria suggested in the extract to two books on factual subjects and write out your evaluation for each book.

4.5 SELECTION OF INFORMATION RESOURCES FOR GENERAL AND PERSONAL INTERESTS

In Section I of this Unit emphasis was placed on the importance of two primary factors involved in children's reading interest - interest and motivation.

In selecting information resources for the general and personal interests of students, emphasis should also be placed on:

1. the basic needs of children and on
2. the stages of child and young adult growth and development.

1. May Hill Arbuthnot has written in her book *Children and Books* of the basic needs common to most people and most times. She says:

> *"A child's needs are at first intensely and narrowly personal, but as he/she matures, they broaden and become more widely socialised." (p.2)*

Arbuthnot lists children's basic needs as:

(i) Competence - the need to achieve. Children need to have a satisfying sense of competence in one area or another to enable them to be happy and well-adjusted. Arbuthnot indicates that the young child's first book heroes are doers. As they grow up children enjoy the competence of heroes in adventure and mystery stories as well as through biography.

(ii) Material Security - the need for physical well being, children require physical comforts of eating, sleeping and other material satisfactions, so stories which deal with the hero struggling for such security appeal to children.

(iii) Intellectual Security - the need to know, children need to ask questions, to enquire about why something is as it is. They like to investigate and are usually curious and books which help answer their questions and satisfy their curiosity for information have a strong appeal.

(iv) Emotional Security - the need to love and be loved, everyone has this need and it is within the family that the child learns affectionate relationships and a sense of security. He/she sees in the family situation the relationships between parents, sisters, brothers, etc. Books can help children with this basic need, particularly if their own home does not provide them fully with this emotional security. Family stories as well as stories which show that other groups such as animals have this same need are of interest to all children.

(v) Acceptance - the need to belong, to be accepted in a group whether it be family or school is important to every child. The books selected for children to read should expand their knowledge and sense of group participation and belonging.

(vi) Play - the need for change, all children need recreation and fun. Fairy tales and fantasy books can be the answer to this need for some children. For others it may be humourous books or books of rhyme and jingles, or for others poetry.

(vii) Aesthetic Satisfaction - the need for beauty and order, the need to enjoy beauty or make beautiful things is important to children. Books of music, painting or dance or craft may help to meet this need. For some children poetry and fantasy books will meet this need.

2. Another writer, Robert Whitehead has developed a table of the types of books enjoyed by children today at various stages of development. The table also notes the characteristics of favourite story lines and the preferred formats in books. The table which has been developed with American children in mind was reproduced in Section I of this Unit as a guide for school librarians to use in developing their own table for children in their countr

> *"Adolescence is that intermediary stage of human development between childhood and adulthood during which so many vital changes take place in the individual both physically and psychologically. Without successful growth emotionally, mentally, socially and physically during the phase of development, an individual will be greatly handicapped in adult life."*
>
> *(Pilgrim, G.H. and McAllister, M.K. Books, Young People and Reading Guidance. N.Y., Harper and Row, 1968, p. 35.)*

In addition to the basic needs listed earlier three factors should be considered when selecting information resources for young people:-

(i) Physical characteristics including physical development, sexual maturation and emotional development.

(ii) Cultural factors including the condition of society (peace/war) purpose or lack of purpose), the condition of family life (stability or insecurity), the mass media of communictions in radio, film, television, magazines, etc.

(iii) Peer group characteristics of speech, dress, behaviour, attitudes.

There are special characteristics also to be considered for different categories or types of information resources which we will now examine.

There is a range of different categories of books for general and personal interests. Here is a list of fifteen categories, each with a definition from a standard dictionary and qualifying characteristics. No single title in a given category will exhibit all of the characteristics listed, but the most appropriate selections of titles will tend to fulfil a majority of the requirements. The characteristics should not be taken as essential criteria for selection but rather as tendencies found in resources within each category. The list was compiled by teaching staff at the School of Library and Information Studies, Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education, Lindfield, Australia.

Picture Books (textual and textless)
Definition: "consisting chiefly or wholly of pictures"

Characteristics:
1. combination of narrative and graphic art
2. illustrations essential to storyline
3. synchronization of text with illustrations
4. illustrations sequential and forward action
5. characterisation developed by illustrations
6. identification of children with characters
7. often concieved by artist/author
8. visually attractive

Beginning Readers
Definition: "the start or first part of anything"

Characteristics:
1. high interest level
2. controlled vocabulary
3. brief presentation
4. large type
5. numerous illustrations
6. limited scope
7. logical sequence
8. simple plot
9. issued as publishers' series

Traditional Tales (includes folk and fairytales, myths, legends)

Definition: "based on or existing due to tradition (i.e. the passing down of customs, culture, belief, etc. from generation to generation)"

Characteristics:

1. usually based on oral tradition
2. often have a conventional beginning (e.g. "In the Dreamtime")
3. usually have a structured plot development with little character development
4. usually conclude swiftly (e.g. "and they lived happily ever after")
5. present "ethical truths"
6. may employ use of magic persons, objects, numbers, spells etc.
7. frequently use repetition of elements, sequences, or situations (i.e. cliches)
8. originate in some form in every country and are reflective of regional characteristics

Fantasy

Definition: "a creation of the imaginative faculty whether expressed or merely conceived as ... imaginative literature especially strange settings and grotesque characters"

Characteristics:

1. strong story element
2. credibility within incredibility
3. placeless and timeless application
4. recognizable value system
5. bordering reality
6. consistent characterisation
7. acceptable imaginative elements
8. unavoidable inevitability

Science Fiction

Definition: "fiction dealing principally with the impact of actual or imagined science upon society or individuals; broadly: literary fantasy including a scientific factor as an essential orienting component."

Characteristics:

1. plausable or possible occurrences
2. true to natural and scientific laws
3. believeable, even if imaginary, characters
4. focus on time perspective
5. interaction of humans and technology
6. establishment of unique society
7. inevitability of change
8. clearly delineated conflicts
9. solid story line

Realism (Contemporary issues and problems of youth)

Definition: "fidelity of representation, truth to nature, insistence upon details; showing of life etc. as it is without glossing over what is ugly or painful"

Characteristics:

1. problems of young people
2. character identification
3. accurate perspective on youth
4. psychological/physiological development
5. plausible, familiar setting
6. low-keyed suspense
7. believeable sequence of events
8. strong, personal theme
9. contemporary issues and values

Historical Fiction

Definition: "belonging to the past, not of the present; dealing with historical events"

Characteristics:

1. substantial authenticity
2. comfortable atmosphere
3. credible characterisation
4. believable dialogue
5. delineation of conflicts and problems
6. attention to social detail
7. strong, obvious theme
8. fusion of plot with period
9. compelling and solid story

Biography (includes: autobiographies and collected works)
Definition: "written life of a person; branch of literature dealing with persons' lives"

Characteristics:

1. creation of a living being
2. thorough research
3. unified impression of subject
4. honest attitude towards portrayal
5. stress of admirable/despicable attributes
6. suitable use of dialogue
7. didactic tendency
8. accurate illustrations/photographs

Poetry
Definition: "writing that formulates a concentrated imaginative awareness of experience in language chosen and arranged to create a specific emotional response through meaning, sound and rhythm"

Characteristics:

1. comprehensible use of words
2. varying complexity of expression
3. uncluttered style
4. pertinent theme for young people
5. aural as well as verbal effect
6. diversity in subjects
7. emotionally satisfying

Adventure (Factual or fictional stories of disasters, exploration, survival, war, westerns)

Definition: "a dangerous or exciting activity or experience"

Characteristics:

1. action packed plot
2. authentic background, possibly with local colour
3. fictionalised or factual account
4. crisp but realistic dialogue
5. obvious conflicts
6. perdetermined goals
7. problems soleved with intelligence and fortitude
8. sound and believable conclusion

Mystery (Includes: crime, espionage, intrigue, unexplained)

Definition: "something that is puzzling, unknown or unexplained"

Characteristics:

1. unusual or distant setting
2. atmosphere of excitement and suspense
3. sequential and fast paced plot
4. flashbacks to preceding events
5. breathtaking action, physical or psychological
6. exaggerated characterisation/stereotypes
7. moral delineations not apparent
8. conclusion without resolution

Romance

Definition: "(a) a story about love; (b) a story about unusual or exciting adventures"

Characteristics:

1. slowly evolving story
2. sharp, clear characterisation
3. poignant and meaningful dialogue
4. entertaining yet convincing style
5. true setting and believable experiences

6. conflicting emotions
7. honest portrayal of adolescence
8. developing sexual awareness

Subliterature (Includes: comics, melodrama, series)

Definition: "inferior literature that does not survive the test of time"

Characteristics:

1. easy-to-read
2. stock settings and attitudes
3. emphasis on escapism
4. shallow characterisation
5. limited description
6. heightened action
7. predictable plot and climax
8. exaggeration and hyperbole
9. variety of forms

Animal Stories (Factual and Fictional)

Definition:: "1: any of a kingdom of living beings typically differing from plants in capacity for spontaneous movement and rapid motor response to stimulation. 2a: one of the lower animals as distinguished from man; b: mammal"

Characteristics:

1. fidelity to nature
2. credible portrayal of innate instincts
3. often a variation of adventure
4. occasional substitute for human character
5. honest humanisation of emotions
6. logical sequence of events
7. preservation of original animal attributes

Humour

Definition: "something that is or is designed to be comical or amusing"

Characteristics:

1. simple and obvious
2. spontaneous but not necessarily terse
3. improbable situations
4. defiant or ridiculous attitudes
5. verbal witticism
6. zany occurrences and misfortunes
7. nonsensical expression
8. taboo topics and language

A number of selection aids and reviewing journals are included in a list in Section 2 of this Unit. One of the most useful and relevant of these is:

> *Review*. Published by the School Libraries Branch of the Education Department of South Australia. It is produced three times a year and the subscription is A$20.00 per. year. The ISSN for ordering is ISSN 0310-5202. Each issue carries a major review section of a selection of books recently received. This review section includes non-fiction grouped by Dewey Decimal Classification number, non-fiction series by DDC, fiction, alphabetical by author, fiction series, alphabetical by title. Textbooks and curriculum-based resources are not reviewed. Each review is written and signed by a member of staff of the School Libraries Branch and each review carries a recommended grading level.

Other reviewing journals which may be considered for co-operative purchase by a group of schools or centrally by the Education Department in your country are given below with comments taken from the June 1980 issue of *Review*.

Australian

Australian Book Review. 12 times p.a. A$22.00. Carries a limited number of reviews of children's books but wide coverage of Australian adult works, both fiction and non-fiction, particularly suited to the secondary school.

Reading Time. 4 times p.a. A$7.20. Has many long reviews by a large panel of reviewers covering both local and overseas publications. At times there is an uneveness in the quality of the reviews.

British

Growing Point. 9 times p.a. A$5.00. Is basically the work of the English Children's writer and critic, Margery Fisher. Reviews are grouped broadly according to subject, category or theme. A useful list of remonders of previous publications is similarly grouped.

Junior Bookshelf. 6 times p.a. A$9.50. Is a long running and well-respected journal with strengths in the younger age level. Little middle/upper secondary reviewing.

School Librarian. 4 times p.a. A$22.00. Has excellent reviews at all levels including adolescent literature by a panel of school librarians.

American

Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books (Chicago). 11 times p.a. A$11.00. Has reliable, anonymous reviews graded by age level and quality of item. American emphasis.

Horn Book Magazine. 6 times p.a. A$18.00. Has detailed lengthy reviews and is one of the oldest and most highly regarded reviewing journals.

School Library Journal. 9 times p.a. A$22.00. Has a large number of short reviews by a large panel of librarians. Forthright evaluation of controversial adolescent literature.

Top of the News. 4 times p.a. A$18.00. Has a small number of reviews but coverage of adolescent literature is useful.

In the test yourself section of this Unit you will be asked to undertake some reviewing, including annotation writing in relation to selected titles. You will find the above reviewing journals useful in this exercise, as well as the full list given in Section 2 of this Unit.

In addition to considering the basic needs of children and young people, and their developmental stages when selecting information resources for the school library, there are criteria or standards of good writing which must be considered in relation to general and personal interest information resources.

These standards include evaluation of:

(i) characters in the story
(ii) theme or what the story is about
(iii) plot or the action of the story
(iv) style, the way a story is presented, including the language

Some questions to ask on these standards are:

(i) Characters - are they credible? convincing? real flesh and blood? are they sterectyped? do they grow and change? does the reader think they "know" them? are they memorable?
(ii) Theme - is the theme implied or openly stated? does it support the action of the story?
(iii) Plot - is there plenty of action in the story? is there suspense? excitement? conflict?

(iv) Style - is the language clear? does the story "flow"? is the vocabulary rich? is the book "hard to put down"? is there humour or beauty of expression?

There are different emphases on these general standards depending on the category of resources. A picture book for example has to appeal to a child's sense with the pictures telling the story and integrating with the text. Stories appeal to children usually because they create an atmosphere of surprise, suspense and what will happen next? Fantasy books demand something extra, they ask children to go beyond the realm of possibility. To assist you in considering these different emphases the list in this section of different categories has been included. In addition you could consult the following text:

Lillian H, Smith. The Unreluctant Years, a critical approach to children's literature. Chicago, A.L.A., 1953.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercises after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete these exercises from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercise.

SECTION FIVE (4.5)

1. Select one title in each of the listed categories in this section and write a short review for each title commenting on any of the specific characteristics listed under each category.

2. Read at least one issue of any one of the following selection aids:
    - Review
    - Reading Time
    - School Librarian
    - Horn Book Magazine
    - School Library Journal

4.6 AUDIOVISUAL RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

A. Audiovisual Resources

Audiovisual resources are those resources which use non-print methods of communicating the content and images in the resource, such as visual (sight) and audio (hearing). There are examples of audiovisual resources in our homes - photos, cassette tapes and games. Many people own audiovisual equipment - slide viewers, cassette players and film projectors.

This section introduces you to the range of audiovisual resources and the equipment needed to use such resources as well as their care and maintenance. You will learn how to assist teachers who wish to use audiovisual resources in their classroom teaching.

The types of audiovisual resources and equipment you will learn about in this unit include both simple and technically complex items. The items held in a school library will be determined by the size of the school and the technology available in the particular country. There are however many audiovisual resources which are readily available cheaply or free, which require very simple equipment or no equipment at all for their use in the classroom.

You will find that a number of terms are used to describe audiovisual resources. Sometimes they are described as "non-book" materials or "media" or "multi-media" or "non-print". This unit uses the term audiovisual resources.

Audiovisual resources are often initially used in classrooms by teachers, as entertainment, to keep the attention of students by showing, for example, in a geography lesson, pictures of people in other countries. Teachers soon realise that these pictures can be more than entertainment and that the students can learn directly from such resources.

In some cases students learn even more effectively from audiovisual resources than from the teacher simply talking about a subject. Once teachers realise this they endeavour to integrate audiovisual resources into the teaching/learning process, and the teachers are interested in the development of collections of audiovisual resources and audiovisual equipment in schools, to supplement and integrate with the collections of print resources. The major reason for the inclusion of audiovisual resources and equipment in school libraries should be to provide teachers with access to a range of such resources for use in the teaching/learning situation.

Not all teachers use audiovisual materials regularly. Some do not like to use them because they have had bad experiences with broken audiovisual equipment. Some teachers do not have the skills to integrate the use of audiovisual resources into their teaching, and therefore shy away from these resources. There are, however, many teachers who use these resources and find them effective.

It is your task to recognise the different approaches of teachers and their attitudes to audiovisual resources and react accordingly. Be sensitive to the teacher's views on the use of audiovisual resources and equipment. Be positive too, and help teachers make the best use of what the school library has to offer. In this way the teachers in your school will become more effective teachers.

Audiovisual resources are recognised as valuable information resources and most libraries wish to include them in their collection. However, they can create problems, especially if the library staff are unfamiliar with them.

In comparison with audiovisual resources books are easy to store and handle, and also to lend from the library. On the other hand, audiovisual resources and equipment come in all shapes and sizes. They are often difficult to store, and many are either very large or very fragile. Also it can be time-consuming to catalogue them, as they can have so many different parts. Keeping a record of loans of such resources requires a lot of attention to detail. For these, and other, reasons library staff need to be made aware of the great benefits of audiovisual resources and equipment. They should be able to recognise audiovisual resources as being as important to learning as are the printed resources, books and periodicals.

It requires a lot of practice for people to learn to read a book. It also requires a lot of practice for people to learn to "read" and understand audiovisual resources. A student who has not seen a number of photographs before will take some time to learn to recognise the content of the photograph. So when you are selecting audiovisual resources for the library you will need to consider what is appropriate for the students and with what they are familiar. The teachers will be aware of these factors and should be involved in deciding which type of audiovisual resources are most suitable.

Types of Resources

(i) Resources and Special Equipment

These resources require some type of mechanical aid for them to be used. In most cases a power source is also needed. Some can be operated with batteries as well as electrical power.

Resources	Equipment
filmstrips	. viewer
slides	. slide viewers or slide projector
transparencies	. overhead projector
motion film (8mm, 16mm)	. film projector
records	. record player (phonography)
audio tape - reel to reel and cassette	. cassette tape player or reel-to-reel tape player
videotape	. videotape player + television set
microfilm/microfiche	. microfilm + microfiche readers

There are specific audiovisual items which combine two or more of the above, known as kits or multimedia kits.

It is important to note that many simple and cheap pieces of equipment may be used with audiovisual resources. For example, a small hand-held slide viewer can be used by individual students and be very effective where there is no electrically powered slide projector.

(ii) Resources Without Special Equipment

The benefits of this type of resource will be obvious. There is little maintenance required and no electrical or other source of power needed. This type includes:

a. graphic materials, e.g. prints, i.e. flat pictures, photographs, posters, maps, diagrams, charts. These resources combine words and drawings to communicate ideas.

b. three-dimensional materials, e.g. displays and exhibits, globes of the world, models, e.g. minature airplanes, realia or real objects such as rocks, section of a bicycle, a cutting tool. These are real objects or replicas of real objects.

Descriptions of individual types of audio-visual resources follow:

1. Transparencies are made from transparent acetate or plastic sheets, and measure about 20 x 30 cm. They usually contain diagrams and/or print in black or colour. The sheet itself may also be coloured. Transparencies are projected onto a screen or flat white wall using an overhead projector. The image from the transparency may be viewed in daylight.

   Transparencies may be purchased commercially in finished form ready to be used in the classroom. It is more usual, however, for blank transparency sheets or rolls to be purchased and the content (drawings, words etc.) to be added by the teachers themselves. This is done using special pens or by the use of an infra-red copier which allows material from printed sources e.g. a diagram in a book, to be made into a transparency. Hinged overlays may also be used to build up a complex illustration on the transparency.

   Features of transparencies are:
   (i) they may be used in daylight
   (ii) the teacher can face the class as they are being used
   (iii) easy to prepare in advance
   (iv) may be read with the naked eye

   Disadvantages include:
   (i) angle of the projector and the screen must be adjusted carefully to avoid distortion of the image on the screen, giving a keystone effect
   (ii) quality of acetate film deteriorates over time
   (iii) projector lamps are fragile.

2. Slides

A slide is a film transparency mounted in a fixed frame. Modern slides measure 5 x 5 cm and are usually in colour. They are mainly intended to be projected onto a screen. They may also be viewed by an individual using a hand-held viewer which relies on a power source such as a battery or natural light.

Slides may be purchased in sets from commercial suppliers. They may also be easily and cheaply produced by library staff or teachers using a 35 mm camera and a slide film. It is also possible to make slides using the Ektagraphic Visualmaker produced by the Kodak company. The Visualmaker is a kit which includes a camera and various stands and a light reflector. With the Visualmaker it is very easy to make slides from printed material such as books. It is also possible to use the Visualmaker to make slides of small three-dimensional objects such as a flower or a watch.

Slides are often included in multi-media kits and may have audio-tape soundtrack synchronised with them.

Features of slides:

(i) versatile - individual slides may be used in many different teaching situations
(ii) cheap to produce
(iii) particularly effective when projected onto a screen and shown to a group

Disadvantages include:

(i) time-consuming to process and catalogue in detail
(ii) necessity to mark slides individually for correct loading into projector
(iii) individual slides from sets easily lost

(iv) easily damaged unless protected by special glass mounting - fingerprints on the film can damage the slide permanently
(v) necessity to mark slides individually for identification purposes

An older type of slide is often found in schools. These are called "lantern" slides and are larger in size (about 9 cm x 10 cm) than modern slides. They can be very useful as many lantern slides illustrate local historical scenes, e.g. old buildings, styles of dress. Because of this they should be carefully examined before any decision is made to dispose of them. An early model slide projector is needed to use lantern slides.

3. Audio-tapes

Audio-tapes, or as they are often simply called, "tapes" are sound recordings made on magnetic tape. Audio-tapes are available as open reels or in cassette form. Tape recording machines may also be used to reproduce recorded sound, but tape players can only be used to play back tapes. Audio-tapes may be purchased with content already recorded on them. Blank tapes may also be purchased and content added as needed by recording or copying content from another tape.

Features of audio-tapes are:
(i) wide variety of formats, recording lengths, quality of reproduction
(ii) relative cheapness of cassette tapes and players and widespread availability
(iii) tapes are re-usable
(iv) may be easily produced and duplicated
(v) ease of use and storage of cassette tapes
(vi) wide range of recordings available
(vii) possibility of taping television and radio programmes.

Disadvantages include:

(i) possibility of damage to tape, particularly open-reel tape

(ii) possibility of waste of tape when only a portion of it is used for recording

4. Filmstrips

A filmstrip is a length of film made usually from 35 mm positive film. Each filmstrip contains a sequence of still pictures often with printed captions. Each picture may use a half or full frame on the film. Filmstrips may be used for individual or group viewing.

Filmstrips have these features:

(i) the individual pictures are permanently arranged in sequence for projection

(ii) individual frames cannot be lost

(iii) sound may be introduced by use of tapes and records by the teacher. (Some filmstrips may be bought with film and sound synchronized)

(iv) a large range of topics are covered on commercially available filmstrips

Some of the disadvantages of filmstrips are:

(i) sequence of pictures may not be the sequence the teacher requires

(ii) if one frame is out-of-date the filmstrip may not be as effective

(iii) they are easily damaged in handling

(iv) difficult to repair

5. Motion Films

A motion film consists of a series of still pictures on a length of 35 mm, 16 mm or 8 mm film. When the images are projected in rapid succession an illusion of motion is created. Motion films are usually accompanied by a soundtrack. A projector is used to project the images onto a screen. The motion films commonly used in schools are 16 mm, standard 8mm and or super 8 mm. 16 mm film usually comes on an open reel. 8 mm films are available on open reels, and/or film loops in cassettes or cartridges. Super 8 mm is also available with a magnetic or optical sound track. In recent years the super 8 mm format has become the most popular format in schools. Many teachers now make their own super 8 mm motion pictures for use in school, particularly since the spread of home movies as a hobby.

Features of motion film include:

(i) effectiveness as a medium in teaching

(ii) possibility of borrowing film from institutions outside the school, e.g. consulates, large companies

(iii) wide range of films available for purchase

Disadvantages include:

(i) expense of making or purchasing films

(ii) level of maintenance required for projectors

(iii) films deteriorate and may be easily damaged through careless handling

6. Records

Records are known as sound discs, phonograph records or gramophone records. They are produced in various sizes such as 18 cm, 25 cm or 31 cm. Playing speeds of 45 and 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute are common. Records are used with a record player which reproduces the sound on the disc. Records are available in monophone (mono) or stereophonic (stereo) sound versions. Both types may be played on stereophonic equipment, but a stereo record effect will be obtained only if a stereo recording is played on stereo equipment.

The advantages of records are:

- (i) excellent quality of sound reproduction
- (ii) easy to locate the section of the record which is needed
- (iii) wide variety of records, particularly with music and spoken word (including language instruction) available
- (iv) many homes have a record player

Disadvantages include:

- (i) records are easily damaged
- (ii) good equipment is expensive to buy
- (iii) good equipment is fragile and needs careful maintenance
- (iv) not possible for individual library or teacher to produce a record.

7. Videotapes

Videotapes are recordings of visual images, which are accompanied by sound and may be played back through a video-playing machine and a television set. The most common form of videotape is on magnetic tape and may be an open reel, cassette or cartridge format. A recent technical development is video recording on a flexible disc.

Some of the features of videotapes are:

- (i) a wide variety of videotapes is available commercially and on loan
- (ii) possibility of teachers making their own videotapes for classroom use
- (iii) future possibility of recording on videodisc is expected to give lower costs and greater flexibility
- (iv) may be viewed in daylight
- (v) easy to select one section for playing rather than complete tape. (This is difficult with motion film).

(vi) more suitable for use by an individual, than motion film.

Disadvantages include:

(i) lack of a standard format for videotapes. Each country has a preferred format and there is uncertainty about future developments

(ii) cameras, recording and playback equipment are expensive

(iii) all equipment is fragile and needs careful maintenance

(iv) quality of reproduction on a videotape deteriorates with use and over time

(v) necessity to conform with copyright requirements when recording or duplicating items.

8. Microforms

Microforms are miniature reproductions of printed or other graphic matter which cannot be utilised without a magnifying device. There are various types of microforms, the most common being microfilm and microfiche. Generally microforms are individually viewed rather than shown to groups. Microfilms come in two forms, roll and flat, and a range of projectors is available to magnify the microfilms so that they can be read with the naked eye.

The main use of microforms in libraries today is to record material which is little used, or material vulnerable to damage from over-use, e.g. rare books, historical records. Microforms are also used to reproduce catalogue cards in some large western libraries and in fact in many cases microforms have replaced the conventional catalogues which are very expensive to maintain in card form.

Features of microforms are:

(i) they are relatively inexpensive and allow libraries to purchase material they could not otherwise afford, e.g. back sets of periodicals

(ii) they take up very little storage space

(iii) microforms which reproduce colour are also available

(iv) possible to make a print on paper, at the touch of a button, on many microfilm and microform readers

Disadvantages include:

(i) users often prefer to read material printed in the conventional way

(ii) projectors for reading microforms are necessary, so that browsing at leisure is not possible if a reader does not have access to a projector

(iii) microfilm may be damaged in use

(iv) scanning a microfilm roll can be time-consuming unless a projector with a fast scanning device is available

It is likely that in the future more microforms will be added to library collections as printing costs become more and more expensive. Some periodicals are available in microform edition and are much cheaper than the regular print edition. Also with computers being used more for cataloguing, it is likely that in the future more catalogues will be available in microform only.

9. Kits

These are items in which two or more types of audiovisual materials have been used. They are also called multi-media kits. A common type of kit includes printed materials, slides and an audio-cassette.

The features of kits are that the various types of material are already packaged together for the teacher to use in the classroom and the parts of the kit are therefore well co-ordinated together. Kits are commercially available, but may also be made up in the school library or by a teacher who requires a kit on a particular topic.

10. Graphic Materials

Some useful types of non-projected audiovisual resources are graphic materials which contain illustrations, diagrams and charts. They come in various sizes and types.

a. prints, i.e. flat pictures. These are in a variety of sizes, in colour or black and white, and can be collected easily and cheaply for the school library. Sources of prints include magazines, advertising material, newspapers, calendars, and tourist offices, embassy or consular offices, commercial firms. When an item no longer is required in the library, it is possible to cut out the relevant illustrations for use. A good collection of prints is of great assistance to a classroom teacher and should be one of the first audiovisual collections to be developed in the school library. Large prints, suitable for hanging on a wall are called posters.

b. photographs of subjects the teacher might use in the classroom can also be obtained relatively easily. In addition, the school library staff or the teacher, can take photographs in black and white or colour and these can be stored in the library for future use.

c. maps should also be part of an audiovisual resource collection. These can be found in atlases which contain many maps, or individually, e.g. a map of New Zealand. Many maps are available free from tourist organisations in various countries, and the embassy or consular offices. Sometimes magazines print small maps as part of an article. The *National Geographic* magazine occasionally includes a large lift-out map in an issue.

11. Three-dimensional Aids

A type of material that does not require special equipment is the three dimensional aid. These include:

a. models, which are minatures. For example, a model of a house or an airplane, or a globe of the world. They can be a useful aid to a teacher.

b. exhibits. Some libraries keep exhibits which are collections of real-life objects related to a topic. For example, a set of cooking utensils or a collection of minerals, or of butterflies. Individual real-life objects are often referred to as "realia".

B. Audiovisual Equipment

Many types of audiovisual resources need special equipment.

1. Non-mechanical equipment. This includes various boards and screens needed as additional equipment to enhance the use of audiovisual resources.
2. Mechanical equipment. There are two major types:
   (a) Projectors
   (b) Recording and reproducing sound machines

1. Non-Mechanical Equipment

Many simple pieces of equipment may be purchased or made to assist the teacher in the use of audio-visual techniques in teaching.

(a) Boards

- bulletin boards, made from a rectangular piece of soft wood, cork or other material into which pins and drawing pins may be pushed. These may be used to display notices, items from the picture collection arranged around a theme and can be used as a focal point in either a library or classroom.
- chalk boards or white boards are used to illustrate lessons and demonstrate techniques. White boards need special coloured pens for writing.
- felt or flannel boards make it possible to display objects which are specially backed with flannel, felt or sandpaper.
- magnetic boards consist of a metal sheet covered with chalk board paint; metal objects or items backed with a magnet may be mounted on the board; it may also be used as a chalkboard.
- pegboards have holes to which pegs, brackets and holders may be attached; many items can be displayed on the board.

(b) Screens

These are usually required for use with projectors of various types, e.g. slide projector. However, if the walls of the room are painted white, you may be able to project on to the wall and not need a screen. If you need a screen, there are several types. The common ones are:

- simple home-made screen using a white sheet or paper attached to a wall
- matte white; these are versatile, easily cleaned and suitable when the focused light source is strong, e.g. overhead projector.
- almunised screens are sturdy, are good for daylight viewing and give a sharp picture.
- glass-beaded screens are expensive and difficult to clean but give a bright sharp image.

Screens may be the roll-up type or fixed in onc position. In selecting the screen you will need to consider projection methods to be used, i.e. whether the projector will project the image directly onto the screen or by rear projection techniques. In rear projection, the projector is out-of-view, behind the screen. There is a special opaque screen for rear projection.

2. Mechanical Equipment

(a) Projectors

Images are projected in two forms. Still images require "still projection", and images in motion, "motion projection".

In still projection enlarged images of picture are projected onto a flat surface, and may be viewed for as long as required. An example of this is slide projection. In motion projection a series of images are projected onto a flat surface in rapid succession to give the illusion of movement. An example of this is "movie" or "motion film" projection.

Common to all projecting is:

First, a source of light - the projector lamp or globe, second, a transparent image such as film slide and third, a lens which focuses the image on a flat surface.

(b) Recording and Play-back Machines
Modern methods of recording make use of electronics. Each recording machine has a microphone which acts to change pressure waves (sound) in the air into electronic impulses. This is a weak impulse which is then amplified by the amplifier and is carried to one of three types of recording head. Different types of recording heads are used for discs, (i.e. records), films (for motion film) and magnetic tape (for tape recorders).

Playback of the three types of recordings is done through a mechanism which allows what is stored on disc, film or tape to be reconverted into electric impulses to produce sound. Some recording machines have play-back facilities built in. There are also specific play-back machines, e.g. cassette tape players which do not record sound.

Equipment Maintenance Programme An important factor in the provision of audiovisual equipment in the school is the maintenance programme devised by the school library. Sending equipment out of the school for repair involves time and money. In addition, the teachers do not have access to equipment they need for their teaching, and the resources often cannot be used when they are needed. This may be avoided if a maintenance programme is implemented.

Preventative maintenance will prolong the life of the equipment and there will be fewer disappointments with machines that do not work. A maintenance system involves setting up a number of files and procedures in the library.

(a) the inventory of equipment
(b) maintenance scheduling chart
(c) maintenance records

(a) Inventory of Equipment

All equipment in the library should be listed in an inventory. The system does not need to be elaborate, but should contain enough information to identify an individual machine, e.g.

- type of equipment, e.g. cassette recorder
- purchase date
- maker's name
- model
- manufacturer's number
- cost
- identification number if allocated by library.

This is an example of an inventory:

Type of Equipment	Purchase Date	Manufact-urer	Model	Serial No.	Cost	Library Id. No.
Cassette Recorder	20 Dec.'81	Sony	TC110A	X4329207	$80	1
Cassette Recorder	20 Dec.'81	Sony	TC110A	X3097302	$80	2
Slide Projector	2 Feb. '82	Kodak	Carousel	A5093218	$300	3
Overhead Projector	9 Mar.'82	Bell & Howell	360A	C9423021	$150	4

(b) Maintenance Scheduling Chart

The maintenance chart is a summary of routine procedures, and should be kept in a prominent place. It lists the type of equipment procedures, and the frequency with which they should be carried out.

Example of a maintenance sheduling chart:

Equipment	Procedure	Frequency
1. Tape recorders (reel-to-reel and cassette)	1. Clean heads	1 month
2. Movie film projectors	1. Clean lens 2. Clean film path	1 month
3. Record players	1. Clean needle 2. Dust machines	1 month

The items listed on the maintenance chart depend on the items held. The specific procedures should consider manufacturer's recommendations. Frequency will depend on how heavily used the items are. Periods between routine maintenance inspections could be shorter than suggested in the sample maintenance chart. Teachers may request a check of specific items from time to time.

(c) Maintenance Records

When the maintenance procedures for an item have been carried out, this should be noted on a card or in a notebook. The same card or notebook may be used for noting emergency or unscheduled repairs so that there is a complete record of any problems with the equipment as well as the regular care given to it. This type of record is particularly useful when an item has to be sent out of the school for repair, or back to the manufacturer. An example of a maintenance notebook follows:

Overhead Projectors

Id. No.	Location	Scheduled Maintenance			Unscheduled Maintenance
4	School Assembly	Oct.3'82	Nov.5'82	Dec.1'82	Replaced bulb 28 Oct. '82
5	School Library	Oct.3'82	Nov.5'82	Dec.1'82	Replaced acetate roll Dec. 3 '82

(d) Maintenance Procedures

Manufacturers will often suggest procedures to be used with specific equipment. Here are some general guidelines:

16 mm projectors

- Clean film track using small paint brush. Pay attention to where film passes over audio pick-up gate and the film gate itself. Clean lenses and reflective surfaces.

Reel-to-reel Tape Recorders

- Remove head cap (usually plastic). Clean audio heads with a cotton swab and alcohol or special head cleaner. Clean moving parts which come into contact with the tape.

Cassette Tape Recorders

- Clean the parts as for reel-to-reel recorders. Note that damage to this type of recorder often caused by failure to push the STOP button when changing mode of operation.

Filmstrip Projectors

- Remove gate assembly or glass carriage where possible. Clean out dust and film chips. Clean lens and reflective surfaces.

Overhead Projector

- Clean projection lenses and platform. Check spare blub if machine carries one.

Record Players

- Clean needle or cartridge area with soft camel hair brush. Clean drive wheel with alcohol. Dust machine thoroughly.

Slide Projectors

- Clean lens with soft brush. To remove finger-prints and grime, place one drop of fluid lens cleaner on the end of the lens and wipe with soft lint-free cloth.

Videotape Recorder and Playback

- Clean entire tape track with a cotton swab soaked in alcohol or head cleaner. Clean audio head. Clean under head using a horizontal action and use well soaked swab to flush particles from head. Clean screen on television monitor and spin dials to get rid of oxidation.

In General - check all electrical plugs and cords for fraying

- ensure that manufacturer's recommendations for lamp cooling especially in overhead projectors is observed, enabling longer life for the lamp.

C. Evaluation of Audiovisual Resources and Equipment

Many of the evaluation criteria appropriate for non-fiction print resources also apply to audio visual media, for example, the authority of the producer. However, these criteria may be applied differently to different media. For example, recency of publication may be of particular importance in some visual media because the presentation of old fashioned or dated clothing, cars, interior decoration, etc. may detract from the impact of the work, even though the facts themselves may not be outdated. The same criteria would not therefore apply to an audio recording.

Many people make comparisons between different media in terms of the effectiveness of presenting certain content. Traditionally audiovisual media are compared with books in this way. As mentioned previously, it should be kept in mind that each medium may offer a different experience. A sound recording of a concert, a film, a written review, and the orchestral score all provide equally valuable but quite different types of information. None can completely replace the others. Very often a particular format is chosen deliberately because the artist, author, etc. prefers to express themselves through a particular medium such as film, television, music or poetry. The purpose of the programme is also very important. A multi-screen, computerised tape-slide programme will be far more effective for some purposes than a 70 mm motion film projected on a single giant screen.

On the other hand one format may be chosen over another because of the money, facilities and expertise available. A simple tape-slide programme may be an effective alternative to a film and cost one-tenth as much to produce. A format may also be chosen according to the manner in which the information can be distributed. A simple 8 mm loop film for example can be used by very small children.

Frequently a format is criticised when it is the content which is offensive. Television, for example, enables information in a variety of formats to be recorded and widely broadcast, for example, video, motion films, still pictures, printed and graphic information. The content and arrangement of this information may be unsuitable and not necessarily related to the potential of television as a communication medium.

Evaluation of audiovisual media is also concerned with evaluation of hardware. The evaluation forms which follow give detailed evaluation criteria for particular types of equipment. The software evaluation form is given as an example and covers more general criteria.

Equipment Evaluation Checklists

devised by Paul J. Bisnette, Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education, Australia

EVALUATION OF AUDIO CASSETTE RECORDERS

Qualities
Construction portability/size and weight carrying case with anchor straps durability and sturdiness access to maintenance points
Sound distortion or true fidelity condensor microphone allowance for external speaker
Operation speed of rewinding automatic shut off imputs for radio, mike, phonograph effective synchronization with other media
Controls both volume and tone automatic level adjustment recording level (V.U.) meter accessible and labelled
Power A.C. only battery only both A.C. and battery duration of battery/rechargeable battery life indicator
Features digital (footage) counter variable jack-input/output pause mechanism ferrous oxide/chromium dioxide
Manufacturer
Model
Cost

EVALUATION OF SLIDE PROJECTORS

Qualities
Construction compact but sturdy unit balanced with vertical adjustment mechanism built in handle and separate carrying case access to projection lamp and lens automatic lens stop
Image even focus and distribution of light across screen range of focal distance adaptable for variable lens
Operation adequate ventilation and head absorbing filter efficient but quiet fan manual as well as magazine injection of slides automatic focus mechanism
Flexibility adaptation for use with filmstrips automatic time set intervals provisions for synchronization and quick change
Controls accessible in top or back of unit easy to use in darkened room provision for holding slides remote adaptor for focus, advance, reverse
Features slide tray to handle adequate number of slides locking device on tray to avoid spillage carrier tray accepting of various slide covers quick release device in case of jam
Manufacturer
Model
Cost

EVALUATION OF OVERHEAD PROJECTORS

Qualities
Construction sturdy and well balanced lightweight for portability post in centre or corner of unit platform large and stable
Light powerful lamp for illumination in lit room 600 watts quartz or 1000 watts incandescent minimum variable light intensity available provision for switchover to alternative lamp
Image total length of lens appropriate for short distance sharp, even focus for screen area absence of glare and extraneous light
Operation vibration free fan motor quiet but efficient blower cool platform even after extended use
Controls adjustment capabilities for different size screens relatively simple lens tilting mechanism accessible controls on front of unit
Features roll attachment or provisions for rolls flexible location of roll attachment cord storage for portable machines
Manufacturer
Model
Cost

EVALUATION OF 16 mm MOTION PROJECTORS

Qualities
Construction parts generally metal sturdy case with strong handle proper balance compact and lightweight metal sprockets or rubber rollers
Sound built-in or separate speaker mechanical noise excessive intelligibility of dialogue silent film capability optical magnetic
Image sharp quality with no distortion steadiness on screen variable light intensity even distribution of light
Operation consistency of speed gentleness of film easy automatic threading simple unthreading speed of rewind
Controls both volume and tone stop action/freeze lever framing device accessible clearly labelled
Features interchangeable lenses large reel capacity loop restorer automatic shut off jacks for auxiliary input/output recording capability - magnetic
Manufacturer
Model
Cost

MEDIA EVALUATION FORM

devised by Sue Nielsen, Kuring-gai C.A.E., Australia

Description

Title: Medium:
Producer: Date:
Components: Price:
Length: Subject:
Age/Level: Individual/Small Group/Large Group Use

FORMAT EVALUATION

	Good	Fair	Poor	Comments
Audio component				
(tape, soundtrack etc.)				
Clarity				
Fidelity				
Intelligibility				
Balance of elements (e.g. music)				
Synchronization with image				
Visual component				
Picture/frame composition				
Colour fidelity				
Focus and exposure				
Quality of acting				
Editing				
Legibility of captions				
Relevant captions				
Registration of O.H.T. Overlays				

CONTENT EVALUATION

	Good	Fair	Poor	Comments
Accuracy				
Currency				
Dateability				
Lack of bias				
Organisation:				
- Length				
- Pacing				
- Sequencing				
Appeal and interest				
USE EVALUATION				
Instructions for use				
Relevance to users' experience:				
- vocabulary				
- visual images (e.g. cars, dress)				
- concepts				
- interests				
Durability of packaging and components				

GENERAL EVALUATION

	Yes	No	Comments
Is medium appropriate for content? (if no, which medium would be more appropriate?)			
Is a cheaper substitute available?			
Recommended in review sources?			
Compatible with existing hardware?			
Recommended for purchase/hire?			

D. Selection and Reviewing Aids

The following is a list of selected aids which could be made available centrally to schools through the Education Department.

Bibliographies

Andrew, J R. *Non-book materials and the Librarian: a select bibliography*. 2nd ed. London, Aslib Audio Visual Group, 1972.

Cantwell, Z.M. and Doyle, H.A. *Instructional Technology: an annotated bibliography*. Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Press, 1974.

Greenfield, E., et al. *Penguin Cassette Guide*. Harmondsworth, U.K., Penguin, 1979.

Greenfield, E., et al. *Penguin Stereo Record Guide*. 2nd ed., Harmondsworth, U.K., Penguin, 1979.

Koenig, M. *Bowker AV Guide: a subject guide to audiovisual educational material*. London, R.R. Bowker, 1975.

McNally, P.T. *Non-book Materials in Libraries: an annotated bibliography*. Toowoomba, Darling Downs Institute Press, 1979.

Reviewing Journals

Audio Vision. Mona Vale, NSW, Iris Pub. (6 times a year)

Audiovisual Librarian. London LA and Aslib. (quarterly)

British Journal of Educational Technology. London, National Council for Educational Technology. (3 times a year)

Instructional Innovator, continues *Audiovisual Instruction*. Washington, D.C., A.E.C.T.

Media Information Australia. North Ryde, Australian Film and Television School. (4 times a year).

Media Matters. North Sydney, N.S.W. Department of Education. (irregular)

Previews. Whitinsville, Mass., R.R. Bowker. (9 times a year)

Society for Mass Media and Resource Technology Journal. Elizabeth, S.A. A.M.M.A.R.T. (4 times a year)

Visual Education. London, National Comm. for AV Aids in Education. (monthly)

Yearbooks and Directories

Audiovisual Market Place: a multi-media guide. *N.Y., R.R. Bowker. (annual)*

Australian Audio-visual Reference Book. *7th ed. Melbourne, D.W. Thorpe, 1981. (Ref. Desk).*

Educational Media Yearbook. *N.Y., R.R. Bowker. (annual)*

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercises after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete these exercises from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercises.

SECTION SIX (4.6)

1. Using the evaluation forms for audiovisual equipment provided in the text carry out an evaluation of two of the following:
    - (a) an audio-cassette recorder
    - (b) a slide projector
    - (c) an overhead projector
    - (d) a 16mm motion projector.
2. Using the media evaluation form provided carry out an evaluation of one audiovisual software item.

4.7 THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF READING, LISTENING AND VIEWING

Teacher and student attitudes are important when considering reading for pleasure and as a recreational activity. One writer has said this about the reading experience:

> *"To those who have learned the secret which transforms the printed page from abstract symbols into words which can carry great personal significance, reading becomes and remains a source of personal satisfaction for which there is no substitute. The initiated reader lives richly through books, experiencing adventures of the long ago or the future as easily as he can thrill to the sight of a breath-taking trapeze act or the throbbing sound of a powerful motor under his control. This "living thought", this identification with the actors and their actions in books is what makes people today continue to read in spite of T.V., radio, movies and other competitors for their time.*
>
> *This enjoyment of reading, this identifying with the printed page emotionally as well as intellectually which characterises the effective reader, does not necessarily occur automatically as the result of learning how to read. Only a relatively few fortunate young people discover the world of books for themselves. They are a constant delight to those who believe that love of reading is an important characteristic of a mature, educated adult. Unfortunately, such young people are few indeed.*
>
> *Most children and young people, even the academically able, must be led, guided, or even enticed into discovering the pleasures and profit that can be derived from books. Sometimes this discovery comes only after long and patient guidance from one or many adults. However, the task is a challenging one to those who feel a sense of responsibility for bringing young people and books together."*
> *(Pilgrim and McAllister, p. 1-2)*

Teachers and librarians who have enjoyed reading for many years find it difficult to understand why some young people do not like reading and find no enjoyment in the process. The reasons for this are many and various. Some of these reasons may be:

(i) many young people may lack the necessary reading skills;
(ii) some parents may not be able to read themselves;
(iii) some parents may not consider reading an important skill;
(iv) many students' friends may consider playing sports as more important than being able to read.

If teachers and librarians wish to motivate students to read, then these efforts to be successful must be aimed at meeting some important personal needs of the individual student. Some of these personal needs may be:

(i) to be like someone he/she admires;
(ii) to reach certain academic goals;
(iii) to gain future employment;
(iv) to read about his interests in newspapers, magazines.

It is important that achievement in reading by the student to meet any of these personal needs be accompanied by recognition by his teachers, his fellow students, his family and his friends.

The attitudes of teachers towards reading and the motivation of students to read are of prime importance. Teachers must themselves know books, read continuously and for enjoyment and convey this enthusiasm and enjoyment to students. Teachers also must know their students, their individual needs and ambitions, their interests and their family situation. Teachers must then be able to bring these two groups of knowledge together and join the right student to the right book for them personally. School librarians assist the teacher in this process.

The development of reading skills for each student is important but so is the outcome of reading - enjoyment and pleasure. It is difficult for the student to experience enjoyment and pleasure without being first able to read and this is where teachers use different techniques in motivating students to read. Free reading sessions do not always provide enjoyment, particularly without guidance in selecting books of interest. Good children's books in hardcover editions do not always appeal to students.

Teachers usually develop a reading programme or reading practices based on a variety of techniques including emphasis on storytelling or reading aloud from familiar materials such as magazines, newspapers and paper cover books.

There are four general guidelines in any programme or activity to motivate students to read:

(i) A regular time needs to be set aside each day for reading for enjoyment and pleasure. The time period should be adequate, 20-30 minutes; it should not be cancelled; it should not be withdrawn due to a student's misconduct; it should be a time looked forward to by students. This is a responsibility of the teacher.

(ii) Assisting students in selecting books for reading should be planned carefully; providing a sufficient range of choice with assistance from the school librarian and teachers; providing books to meet students' needs and interests; providing attractive, well presented books at the "right" reading levels. This is a co-operative responsibility between teachers and librarians.

(iii) Helping students to explore the storyline, or plot, the characters, the theme of what they read depending on their level of ability, understanding and reading skill; by asking questions; by making wrong statements about storylines to stimulate discussion; by making comparison with other stories. This is again a joint responsibility.

(iv) Using relevant types of book materials which students are familiar with and which they bring themselves to class or to the library; newspapers; magazines; paper cover books; comics; pictures.

There are a number of techniques which can be used in stimulating students' interest in reading. These techniques are designed to provide enjoyment and pleasure for both students and teachers and a relaxed classroom/library atmosphere which students hopefully will associate with reading.

The main techniques are:

1. Reading Aloud;
2. Storytelling;
3. Book Talks;
4. Dramatic Art;
5. Creative Art.

In all these techniques teachers and school librarians can play a part and for all of the techniques discussion and co-operation are essential between teachers and librarians.

1. Reading Aloud

   All children and many older people enjoy listening to a book or story read aloud in a pleasant voice. Reading aloud helps students:

   (i) to discover books - younger children or children who do not read well have the opportunity of making contact with books they may not be able to read; children who can read well may read a book they thought previously was too difficult, too large or unattractive in appearance.

   (ii) to extend knowledge - much general information about particular historical periods, famous people or customs can be derived from fiction books; students can be stimulated by a poem or a story which will start them on a search for information.

   (iii) to develop appreciation for a good story, for interesting characters, for a good plot or for beautiful language; students can be helped in their language development by the extension of thair vocabulary and their understanding of the meaning and use of words.

(iv) to have fun and be creative - students can develop their sense of humour; be stimulated to act, to dance, to create through drawing or modelling the characters or scenes they hear about.

Reading aloud well, takes practice. You need to be a good reader yourself with a clear pleasant voice. Here are some points for consideration when preparing and presenting a reading aloud session:

- Use books to meet students needs and interests and which you have enjoyed.
- Consult the teacher about availability of other relevant titles in order to build up your knowledge.
- Consult students for their choices. Do not hesitate to use well-known and favourite titles more than once a term.

Presenting

- Give title and author of book. Show cover.
- Be relaxed and hold book comfortably.
- Use clear enunciation.
- Define new words where relevant.
- Use natural voice with expression for narrative, lower or raise voice for variety of different characters.
- Maintain eye contact with group.
- Do not use exaggerated facial expressions or gestures which can detract from story.
- If serialising, stop at a carefully selected interesting part.
- Be enthusiastic in reading!

Sharing a Picture Book

When sharing a picture book, particularly with young children, there are some additional points to consider:

- Select a book with a good story and attractive illustrations which in themselves tell the story. It should be a brief story to keep their limited attention span and one you know well.

- Share the book as you read, either by holding it sideways facing the children and at an angle that you can read or read and then show the illustrations. Make sure the book is held when showing at a height and angle that the children can see the illustrations.
- Be prepared to listen to children's remarks and questions. Point out in the illustrations the important points of the story. Occasionally, and with experience, you can personalise the story by referring to similar experiences of children in the group.
- Again, be enthusiastic!

2. Storytelling

Storytelling has a long history. In most countries of the world stories have been told aloud, around fires, under trees, as older people have handed down to younger people - an understanding of the beginning of the world, tales of heroic acts, legends and myths. In most countries, there are people who have become "tellers of tales". The art of storytelling requires skill, experience and a natural ability.

Well-known storytellers in the community can be invited as guests of the library; such storytellers may be teachers, children's librarians, or elders of the community. It may be possible to find writers of stories, of poetry, of legends, who will be prepared to tell their stories to groups of children. Children themselves are natural storytellers and sessions where they act as storyteller to other children should be encouraged.

It is important to provide follow-up storytelling by ensuring there are copies of the stories, poetry available in your school library as well as drawing students' attention to other related information resources in your school library.

3. Book Talks

There are many ways of helping students talk about books, films, pictures or music which they have enjoyed. There are many benefits for students in such presentations including:

- developing an ability to speak before a group;
- developing self-confidence;
- learning to organise ideas to be presented to others;
- learning to plan the presentation for a particular time period;
- developing good speech habits.

Some techniques which may be used

(i) student oral book report, with the students telling the group about a book that he/she has read;

(ii) sharing session, a number of students talking about books, perhaps all of a particular type, e.g. mystery;

(iii) round table discussion, students talking about the same book they all have read;

(iv) listening to a taped book/film review, then open discussion by students, comparing their ideas and those of the reviewer about the book or film;

(v) character talks, given by students about their favourite characters;

(vi) subject/topic talks, where students talk about interesting places, inventions, historical figures they have read about;

(vii) character impersonation by a student, with other students guessing the character;

(viii) acting out a scene from a story by students and other students and teachers guessing the title and author.

In most of the above techniques the following points should be emphasised:

- to use the techniques which will draw students towards reading, not away from reading;
- to encourage and assist students in such presentations, avoiding embarrassment and failure for the student and giving student recognition for achivement.

to use a varied approach, remembering each student has different needs, abilities and interests.

Some teachers and librarians seem to use the technique of book talks by individual students more often than other techniques. If you do this it is suggested that students should be encouraged to achieve variety in such talks, to prevent students being bored or turned away from reading for enjoyment. Help students to talk about - best-liked characters, funniest/saddest part of the story, most exciting part, the time and place of the story, the plot.

Students can also develop aids such as pictures or drawings to illustrate their oral presentations. Some suggestions on such aids are made later in this section.

4. Dramatic Art

Dramatisation of a story, a poem, an incident, or a character, is often a natural and enjoyable outcome of reading. Dramatisation may take the form of:

(i) play - informal dramatisation
(ii) pantomime
(iii) puppet plays

Benefits for students involved in dramatisation can be:

- learning to co-operate and interact, to appreciate other students' abilities and capacities;
- learning to evaluate performance whether in class, in a film or on the radio;
- to reflect on stories, films and gain fresh or new insights into characters, plots, incidents;
- to develop good speech and movements;
- to have fun and enjoy themselves.

(i) Informal play is a natural part of the school day and can be used to effect in the classroom or library. It can be either individual or group play. Individual play is found in natural movements during or following a story and can be enhanced by the use of music as children glide like ghosts or hop like birds or squeal like pigs. Again play can take the form of acting out the daily activities of family and school such as looking after the animals, caring for the baby, doing the washing, tending the garden. Young children particularly will use play naturally to tell a rhyme and other children will then use their own ideas for acting out the rhyme in response.

(ii) Pantomime

Pantomime, acting out and interpreting plot, characters and situations in a story, can be used with a wide age range of students. For younger children the story must be simple, usually with a single incident. For older children stories with more complex situations can be used.

With younger children, simple rhymes and riddles are easy to start with, as the children will naturally act them out without very much prompting. In some situations, it will be best to suggest a group of children act out the riddle simultaneously. As children gain confidence in pantomime it will be possible to suggest pantomime in pairs with situations requiring two characters, e.g. mother and child, pig and dog, etc.

Class groups may be involved in a pantomime play or tableau made up of a series of "still pictures" or with a narration the pantomime may become a series of mimed scenes. Well-known stories are usually the most successful in pantomime.

It is useful to collect a number of "props" - aids for dressing up as characters, e.g.

- a paper crown for a king or queen
- a piece of wood for a spear
- a box of shells for money or wealth
- coloured cloth for a cloak
- a carton and grass for a home.

Pantomime is meant to be enjoyed as well as extend students knowledge and understanding.

(iii) Puppet Plays

The simplest type of puppets are hand manipulated artificial figures meant to represent characters in plays and stories. Hand puppets can be simply made with not too much time taken in the process.

First you select a story or play which can be made into a puppet play. A successful puppet play requires:

- a lot of dialogue and some monologues (one person talking)
- good plot with plenty of action
- easily recognizable characters for children at whatever age or grade
- speeches or conversations that children can translate into their own language easily.

Second you need to make the puppets. The following materials are useful for this process:

- balls, bars of soap, wodden spoons
- fruit, seed pods, pine cones, vegetables
- milk cartons, tin cans
- wood scraps, driftwood
- paper bags, socks, newspapers.

Some examples of puppets which are easy to make:

Lion - old sock, pieces of cloth, buttons
- stuff the sock with cloth, sew on strips of cloth for ears, sew on buttons for eyes, nose, mouth, add strips of cloth to make a mane.

Man - wooden spoon, tin cans of different sizes, string or wire, paper
- paint a face on large wooden spoon, put large can over spoon handle for body, tie on smaller cans for two arms, use spoon handle for one leg by tying on smaller cans, then tie on smaller can for other leg. Make a paper hat.

Warrior - paper bag, with square flat base, paint or crayons, cloth/feather scraps
- draw a face on bag, making mouth opening on fold of bag at base, dress the rest of the bag in cloth scraps or feathers. Glue on feathers or grass for hair.

Third you need a stage for the puppets to act upon. You can use a table turned on its side, a chair or even an open doorway. You can use a piece of cloth for a curtain, stretched across table or chair legs or the open doorway. You can use a large box or crate but these need anchoring with stones to keep them in place. Whatever you use for a stage can be decorated with paper or cardboard painted cut-outs.

To be successful puppet plays need:

- rehearsals at manipulating puppets
- time for children to develop "voices" for their character and to learn their parts
- some "atmosphere" music
- audience involvement.

5. Creative Art

The use of creative arts can add a further dimension to the other techniques suggested in this section and also provide additional opportunities particularly for individual students to extend and enrich their knowledge and appreciation of books and reading.

Some creative arts activities, which are easy to introduce are:

(i) Paint and paper - for students' illustration of books; making book markers illustrating characters, story incidents; making a mural (large wall picture) of a story; making posters about an author or a group of books.

(ii) Jigsaw Puzzles - mounting bookjackets or original drawings of story scenes on heavy cardboard, then cutting these up to form pieces of jigsaw and placing in a box or envelope. These puzzles can be used after reading the story or in encouraging students to read the story after putting the jigsaw together.

(iii) Mobiles - character cutouts, illustrations, objects in the story can be mounted, tied to light string or thread and hung from a frame. The frame can be made from a real tree branch, an old umbrella stripped to the bare ribs, or a wire coathanger. The mobile can be used as an expression of the main points in a story.

(iv) Story subject maps - can be drawn on large sheets of paper or cardboard to illustrate the setting of a story; a journey made in exploration; the life story of a famous person; the place/town/house in which certain incidents of a story occur.

(v) Games - booktitle quizzes can be created by completing a half given book title; book character quizzes, by naming the main character in a particular book; crossword puzzles with clues based on titles, authors, characters, incidents of books. These games can be designed by students as well as teachers and librarians.

Special Activities

As well as utilising these techniques in helping students to enjoy books and reading, these and other techniques can be used in special activities during the school year. Such special activities can be:

- Education Week
- Children's Book Week
- Library Week
- National days
- South Pacific Weeks
- Parents and Friends Day

There can be other special activities organised by the school library throughout the school year. Such activities can be:

- Regular exhibitions and displays
- Book/reading clubs
- Regular bulletin boards
- Regular library magazine
- Debating/Public speaking
- Library monitors
- Parents and Friends Day
- Teachers Day.

In all these activities, whether celebrating national or regional events, the appearance and atmosphere of the school library is important. The school library should be an attractive, colourful, clean and friendly place. The work of students cna be displayed and students can be involved in preparation for and participation in the events. Such preparation and participation provide opportunities of recognition.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt the following exercise after you have studied the text of each section. If you cannot complete this exercise from your knowledge, you will need to re-read the text which will help you complete the exercise.

SECTION SEVEN (4.7)

1. Prepare a programme or activity to motivate students to read.

    (a) Give details of age, reading level and interests of students.
    (b) List the techniques to be used.
    (c) Give full description of activities involved.
    (d) Indicate how you would evaluate the succes or failure of the programme.

UNIT IV

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COURSE II

UNIT V Using Information Resources

INTRODUCTION

This unit USING INFORMATION RESOURCES is an examination of the approaches which the school librarian, the teachers and the students may use in the effective use of information resources.

The unit is divided into 8 sections:

1. Information resources and their use;
2. Basic reference works;
3. Reference collections;
4. Compiling information resource lists;
5. Services for teachers;
6. Services for students;
7. Extension services;
8. Special activities.

The section Information resources and their use discusses the techniques of exploiting fully the information contained in an information resource whether it be print or non-print. The section also examines a wide range of published bibliographies and indexes which can assist in the maximisation of this exploitation.

The section Basic reference works examines the criteria for the evaluation of reference sources. These are then applied to a range of reference sources most likely to be used in offering effective school library and information service.

The section Reference collections deals briefly with the organisation and patterns of use of a reference collection in a school library.

The section Compiling information resource lists is practically oriented, and outlines the strategies to be used.

The sections Services for teachers and Services for students discuss the range of services which a school library could offer in an ideal situation. Emphasis is placed on the development of information skills in the school student, and relevant teaching strategies are discussed.

The sections Extension services and Special activities discuss a range of services and activities which the school library may organise by itself, but usually in conjunction with other libraries and information agencies.

The unit is concerned with the further development of the student's understanding of information resources, and strategies which the school librarian may use to promote their use and understanding in the school teaching and learning environment.

5.1 INFORMATION RESOURCES AND THEIR USE

The *school library* will usually have the greater part of its information resources in print form. Whether that print resource be a *book*, a *pamphlet*, a *government report*, or a *church publication*, it is important that the potential user can gain access to the *intellectual* and *artistic* content of the print resource. To help the user gain access to the relevant information, each one of the print resources may have up to *five* parts. Sometimes they may have less, and sometimes it is hard to separate the function of each part, as they may overlap.

The main parts of a *print resource* designed to help the user are:

(a) contents list;
(b) index;
(c) appendices;
(d) glossary;
(e) bibliography.

You may find other listings such as a *list of illustrations*, and a *list of maps and charts*.

The *contents page* will appear as part of the preliminary pages in a book, or as the first page of an issue of a periodical. The *contents list* will list the chapters of the book, the number of each chapter and the page on which each chapter begins. This allows a potential user to evaluate the book, and determine whether it may assist in meeting his/her information needs. The nature of the *contents list* will vary according to the nature of the *print resource*. For example in a collection of short stories, the contents list will list each short story by author and title, and give the page number on which each short story begins. In an issue of a periodical, the various articles and authors where identified, will be given in page order, and identify the page number where the article begins. Without a *contents list*, the user would have much difficulty in identifying what was included in the work, and how the intellectual content has been broadly organised.

To help the user become more aware of the exact nature of the intellectual content in print resources, particularly books, most authors will include an index. The index is usually located at the end of the book or government report. The index is an alphabetical list of names of places, names of people, subjects, topics covered in the book, an indication of where that person, subject, etc., is mentioned in the book or report. The index is far more specific than a contents list. The index should include a page number for each time a person, place, subject, etc., is mentioned in the book. Compilation of the index to a book is a specialised task. It is usually not compiled by the person or people responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the book. The compilation is undertaken by a specialist who has developed specialised skills and competencies in compiling indexes. This person is known as an indexer. One of the special skills which an indexer has, is to make all entries consistent, both in form of entry heading and the nature of the information included. Sometimes when you look at an index, the entry heading which you have chosen, may not be listed there. You may have to think of a similar term, and check under that heading. You may be successful, but if not you will have to keep thinking of alternative headings which the indexer may have used. Sometimes the indexer will have anticipated some of these alternative forms, and made what are known as see references. This means you are referred from a rejected heading to the accepted heading which has been used. One example of this would be:

Presidents, *see* Heads of state, etc.

When you have checked under Heads of state, etc., you are given references to that heading, and aspects of the heading. The term appendices is one which applies to some print information resources. Not all print resources will have appendices. Why then do we have appendices? They are a type of information listing included in a print resource, and usually provide additional information to support and expand upon what is the main part of the work. Examples of what may be included in appendices are:

(a) a copy of the questionnaire used to gather information upon which the book or report is based;

(b) a full set of the statistics used, and from which extracts have been used in the book or the report;

(c) additional information which supports a particular point of view expressed in the body of the book or report;

(d) the full text of a document from which there has been extensive quoting;

(e) a rationale for a particular approach or strategy used in the book or report.

The number of appendices, if any, included in a print resource is usually determined by the people responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of the work. Examine a wide range of books and reports, and you will realise just what may be included in an appendix.

Sometimes a bibliography may be given. This may be included as an appendix, and often as a separate section. The bibliography will be a list of information resources which the people responsible for the intellectual and artistic content have used in the creation of the publication. Sometimes the bibliography will have an annotation for each item, and sometimes there will be none. The bibliography may be organised on a classified basis, e.g. by topic or by date of publication, or in alphabetical order. The purpose of the bibliography is to:

(a) inform users of the book of the range and quality of information resources consulted in writing the book;

(b) suggest other information resources which the user may want to examine and use.

The length of the bibliography will depend on the number of items used by those responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of the work.

A glossary may be included in a book or some other print information resource. This may be included as an appendix, and sometimes as a separate section. A glossary is a special list of difficult and technical words or terms in relation to the content of the book. The words or terms will have been used constantly throughout the text. Instead of defining at each point of use, each word or term is listed in the glossary. Then a definition, explanation or interpretation of the word or term is given. The words and terms are usually given in alphabetical order. The purpose of the glossary is to make sure that the user clearly understands the meaning and interpretation of words and terms used in the body of the text. An example of a glossary may be found in:

> *Anglo-American cataloguing rules, edited by M. Gorman and P.W. Winkler. Chicago: American Library Association, 1978. pp. 563-572.*

The glossary on these pages is a list of the definitions for the bibliographic and cataloguing terms, including those relating to non-print resources, used in the rules. For definitions of other terms, the reader is told to consult other bibliographic or library glossaries or dictionaries.

To date, we have only discussed the five terms contents list, index, appendices, bibliography and glossary in relation to print resources. The reason for this is that they are most commonly found in these resources.

However, in relation to non-print resources, the same type of explanatory aid is often available. We shall examine several non-print resources in order to determine how the information is recorded. It may not be as detailed or comprehensive as with print resources. We shall examine a gramophone record, a sound tape cassette, a 16mm film and a multi-media kit.

(a) gramophone record - relevant information will be found on the record jacket or container, on the gramophone record label or in accompanying material. Information on a record of popular music will include:

(i) title of the record;
(ii) title of the songs in their sequential pattern on the record;
(iii) name/names of the performer/performers;
(iv) time taken for each song;
(v) details of the persons/organisations responsible for the technical production of the gramophone record.

(b) sound tape cassette - relevant information will be found on the cassette label, or in accompanying material. The information recorded will be similar to that listed for a gramophone record. You can see that both (a) and (b) have a form of contents list and/or an index. If they have accompanying material, then this is what we mean as appendices. The accompanying material is usually in a print format such as a published booklet, or pamphlet, or perhaps, a set of duplicated notes;

(c) 16mm film - relevant information may be given on the film itself, on the film reel, or on the container, or the accompanying material. Information will usually be available in the same way as with (a) and (b);

(d) multi-media kit - as this type of publication includes a range of information resources, both print and non-print, the organisation for contents lists, indexes, etc., presents some problems. This is why a multi-media kit must have accompanying and explanatory material to help the user identify what is included in the kit; how each item relates to each other item, and how the total package should be used to achieve the educational aims and objectives of the school. Therefore you will find a printed contents list, a set of appendices and usually a glossary of relevant terms and difficult words.

Whatever type of information resource you may be using, it is necessary to know the information contained in that resource. Sometimes this will have been included at the time of publication, and will include an index, a glossary, a number of appendices, or perhaps a bibliography. If these aids are not included at the time of production and publishing, the school librarian may have to use his/her professional competencies to provide that information. This information may be attached and included in the information resource, or it may be included in one of the school library's own catalogues and indexes.

A school library will use a range of published indexes and bibliographies to assist control over the information resources available to the school library in the wider community.

We shall examine:

(a) bibliographies;
(b) indexes,

which have been published by the information industry.

Bibliographies

Definition: a bibliography is a list of information resources including books, periodical articles and audiovisual resources.

The scope and coverage of bibliographies varies enormously, according to the purpose of the bibliography. All bibliographies contain bibliographic information on published resources, including where relevant, details of author, editor, title, publisher, date of publication, price, format etc. The methods of compiling a bibliography will be considered in 5.4 Compiling information resource lists.

Use

Bibliographies are used to answer a variety of questions, for example:

(i) what are the bibliographic details of a particular published item?
(ii) what are some references to published resources on a subject or person?
(iii) is a particular book or information resource held in another library?
(iv) what print and/or non-print resources are available for purchase on a particular topic?
(v) what books did a particular author write?

Bibliographies can be grouped into the following major types:

(i) based on individual countries;
(ii) based on language;
(iii) based on format;
(iv) based on commercial availability;
(v) based on physical location of information resources;
(vi) based on subject.

We shall now examine each type.

1. Bibliographies based on individual countries

These are known as national bibliographies and usually compiled at the national library of a country. Where a national library does not exist, the function of compiling a national bibliography may fall to a university library or a major public library. A national bibliography aims to include all the information resources published in a country irrespective of subject and language. Sometimes they may include publications written by nationals who live overseas, and any information resource published about the country irrespective of the place of publication in the world. National bibliographies are important resources as they are the most comprehensive listings of information resources available. They usually give full bibliographic and price details which are necessary for acquisition. Often they will include information which the school library can use for cataloguing and classification.

National bibliographies which are published on a regular and on-going basis are known as current national bibliographies. Some countries have also compiled retrospective national bibliographies to cover the period from the beginning of publishing until the starting date of the current national bibliography. Many developing countries still have to commence compiling a retrospective national bibliography, and you as a school librarian should be involved in that activity, particularly if it is compiled by your national or regional library association.

Examples of relevant current national bibliographies are:

Australian national bibliography
British national bibliography
Fiji national bibliography
New Zealand national bibliography
Papua New Guinea national bibliography

You should be familiar with these publications. If not, you should examine examples of each of the above listed national bibliographies. As a result of your critical examination, you will be aware these publications have a similar purpose. However, you should be able to notice differences in relation to:

(a) range of publications included;
(b) arrangement of bibliography;
(c) frequency of the bibliography;
(d) amount of information included in each entry.

As a school librarian, you must use the national bibliography as a selection and reference resource, if you are to provide effective school library and information service.

2. Bibliographies based on language

This type of bibliography is wider in scope than national bibliographies. They list resources in a given language, regardless of the country where published.

An example of a bibliography based on publication in the English language is:

> Cumulative Book Index: a World List of Books. New York: Wilson. A serial publication which has a variant publishing pattern to meet user's needs.

3. Bibliographies based on format

This type of bibliography confines its coverage to one physical form of information, and is further limited by geographic area.

Some relevant examples include:

> (a) *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory: a Classified Guide to Current Periodicals, Foreign and Domestic. New York: Bowker. Biennial.*
>
> (b) *Australian Government Publications. Canberra: National Library of Australia. Monthly, with cumulations.*

You may wonder why there is no publication date given for many of these publications. The reason for this is that they are periodical publications, and will therefore cumulate over a period of time. If you wish to identify the publishing strategy of a particular periodical bibliography, you will need to consult an issue and read the foreward or preface.

4. Bibliographies based on commercial availability

These bibliographies list only information resources available for purchase either through a bookseller or direct from a publishing organisation. They will include price details for purchase, and relevant addresses from which to purchase the resources.

You will be familiar with many of these bibliographies from your studies in 2.3 Information Resources: Their Creation and Availability.

They include:

- (a) *Australian Bookseller and Publisher: for Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific*
- (b) *Bookseller: Organ of the Book Trade*.
- (c) *Australian Books in Print*.
- (d) *Books in Print*.

Should you not be familiar with the above four publications, you should try to examine them, particularly in realtion to your role as a school librarian in the South Pacific. You may reject them as being unsuitable, however, you should be able to identify more relevant, objective and suitable sources.

5. Bibliographies based on physical locations of information resources

Some bibliographies make it possible to check whether or not an item is held in another library. These bibliographies fall into two broad groups:

- (a) published catalogue of the holdings of a particular library;
- (b) published catalogue of the holdings of two or more libraries.

These are known as union catalogues.

An example of a library's published catalogue is:

Public Library of New South Wales. Mitchell Library Dictionary Catalog of Printed Books. Boston: Hall, 1968.

Examples of union catalogues or listings are:

- (i) *Serials in Australian Libraries: Social Sciences and Humanities - a Union List. Canberra: National Library of Australia.*

(ii) *Scientific Serials in Australian Libraries.* Melbourne: Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Organisation.

(iii) *Papua New Guinea National Union List of Serials.* 2nd ed. Boroko, PNG: PNG National Library Service, 1981.

(iv) *Newspapers in Australian Libraries.* Canberra: National Library of Australia.

6. Bibliographies based on subject

This is an important type of bibliography dealing on an in-depth basis with a particular subject, covering the range of knowledge. This type of subject bibliography is often selective in choosing items to be included, and the items selected may be further limited by time span, geographic area, physical form of items or some other reason.

The selection of items for a subject bibliography is usually made by a person who is a specialist in the subject field. Their expertise is usually recognised by the appropriate subject area, and helps give the subject bibliography, the required degree of authority.

Examples of relevant subject bibliographies include:

(i) Cammack F.M. and Suito, S. *Pacific Islands Bibliography.* Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow, 1962.

(ii) Sukhwahl, B.L. *South Asia: A Systematic Geographic Bibliography.* Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow, 1974.

You will now be aware that there is a vast range of bibliographies published in each of the six groupings. No school librarian can ever hope to know all reference sources. To help all people who work in the library and information industry, there are a number of specialist bibliographies and guides to information resources in a subject field which are available.

The following are examples of such publications:

(i) Bibliographies of bibliographies. As the heading implies, these are lists of print and/or non-print resources. An example is:

Bibliographic Index: A Cumulative Bibliography of Bibliographies. New York: H.W. Wilson. Frequency varies, with cumulations.

(ii) Guide to reference sources. These are important sources, and used by library and information workers throughout the world.

Guide to Reference Works. Compiled by E.P. Sheehy. 9th edition. Chicago: American Library Association, 1976. Plus *Supplement*. 1980.

Walfords Guide to Reference Material. London: Library Association.
Vol. 1 4th ed. *Science and technology*, 1980.
Vol. 2 3rd ed. *Social and historical sciences*, 1975
Vol. 3 3rd ed. *Generalities, languages, the arts and literature*, 1977

Indexes

The other type of publication which assists the school librarian gain control of published resources is an index.

Definition: An index is a systematic guide to the contents of information resources. It will attempt to be exhaustive, and analytical, as well as passing comment on the intellectual content of the chapter of a book, an article in a periodical or some other similar information resource.

It is important to remember that this type of indexing service attempts to be analytical.

An index or indexing service is used by the school librarian to:

(i) trace periodical or newspaper articles on a clearly defined subject;

(ii) update the information contained in other reference materials by tracing the most recently published information on a subject;

(iii) check a reference to a given article to verify bibliographical details.

These indexes can be divided into *three* broad types:

(a) indexes to a single publication;
(b) indexes to a range of general interest publications;
(c) indexes to a range of publications on a subject basis.

We shall now examine each type. You should attempt to examine as many of the titles listed; or, identify similar publications of the same nature.

(a) *Indexes to a single publication*

Individual periodicals usually include an index to each volume as it is completed. Some publishers produce this index, or the index to a number of volumes as a separate work. Some examples are:

(i) Index to the Times. London: The Times. Bimonthly. No cumulations.

(ii) National Geographic Magazine Cumulative Index. Washington, D.C.: The Society.

(b) *Indexes to several general interest periodicals*

These indexes attempt to list accurately the contents of many general interest periodicals in a systematic manner. The subject coverage is usually very broad.

Examples include:

(i) Pinpointer: A Current Subject Guide to Popular Periodicals. Adelaide: Libraries Board of South Australia.

(ii) British Humanities Index. London: Library Association

(c) Subject indexes

Subject indexes give an in-depth coverage of a particular field such as science or education. These periodical indexes often include references to contents of materials in other formats such as books, newspapers, research reports, etc.

Examples include:

- (i) *Australian Education Index*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- (ii) *Art Index*. New York: H.W. Wilson.
- (iii) *Index to Dental Literature*. Chicago: American Dental Association.

You may be able to identify other indexing services which are relevant to your work situation.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION ONE (5.1)

1. List and describe the functions of the five main parts of a print information resource.

2. List the bibliographic information you need to accurately describe a gramophone record.

3. Define the term bibliography.

4. List, describe and explain the six major types of bibliography. Give examples wherever relevant.

5. Define the term index.

6. List, describe and explain the three major types of index useful to the school librarian. Give examples wherever relevant.

5.2 BASIC REFERENCE RESOURCES

Information resources tend to be finite, in that they have a physical presence and entity which includes a beginning and an end. You may have become used to coping with an information resource in its entirety in that:

1. You usually read a book from beginning to end, or cover to cover;
2. You view a film from beginning to end, irrespective of its length;
3. You listen to a sound tape cassette in its entirety.

There is nothing wrong with this approach, as these information resources have been written and designed by those responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of the work for it to be used in this manner.

There is a group or type of information resources designed not to be read, viewed or listened to in their entirety. Their intellectual and artistic content has been so designed, that the user will use the work to find an answer or answers to a specific question or questions. Mostly this type of information resource is published in print form and not in film or sound form. However, due to cost and production techniques, some of these resources are published in microform, and mostly as microfiche. These information resources designed to help answer specific questions are usually called reference works or reference sources by the library and information profession. In a library, the reference sources are grouped together to form what is known as the reference collection. We shall examine the reference collection and its use in the next unit.

We shall use the term reference source, but remember it means the same as reference work. Many of the publications termed reference have special characteristics and therefore have special names and titles. Examples of these special names include:

1. dictionaries
2. encyclopaedias
3. directories
4. handbooks
5. manuals
6. yearbooks
7. atlases.

There are many other types of reference sources, but the seven types listed, are the main types found in a school library.

Before examining the seven types and talking about their characteristics, it is necessary to consider the criteria by which the school librarian can evaluate the quality of information contained in these reference sources. There are many approaches which can be used in evaluating the worth of a reference work. We shall use the following strategy, and consider the following main areas.

1. Nature of information included in the reference source;
2. Reliability of the information;
3. Arrangement of the information included in the reference source;
4. Ease of use;
5. Additional features other than the printed word;
6. Objectivity of the information presented;
7. Level of information in relation to the reading and intellectual level of the intended audience;
8. Degree of currency of information included, or how up-to-date is the information.

You may be able to think of other areas to consider in developing your own strategy of evaluation of reference resources. Two of these areas which you may have thought of, may have been:

1. geographic boundaries of the information included e.g. is it local area, national, regional or international?

2. time span of the information included
   e.g. is it for the last calendar year, financial year, the period 1976-1981, or what?

These areas of geographic boundary and time span would normally be included in the first point mentioned. You may have thought of other areas which can be considered, but which form one of the eight areas listed above.

When you attempt to evaluate a reference source for inclusion in the reference collection of a school library, you should consider the following eight areas. We shall now consider each area.

1. Nature of information included
   Sometimes this will be clear from the title e.g. *Encyclopaedia of Music*. The patterns which may vary include:

   (a) the type of music included, and any type or types which may be excluded;
   (b) the period of time span covered;
   (c) the geographic boundaries included.

   Clues to the extent and nature of the information included are normally contained in:

   (i) title;
   (ii) table of contents;
   (iii) dust jacket blurb;
   (iv) introduction;
   (v) preface
   (vi) index.

2. Reliability of information included
   If information becomes available in a print or non-print form, it does not necessarily mean that it is accurate,

reliable or valid. You will need to check the authority of those responsible for the intellectual and/or artistic content of the reference source. Those responsible may be individual authors, illustrators, editors, or they may be corporate bodies such as a private organisation or a government agency.

Reliability can be checked in the following ways:

(a) background of the author or authors in relation to:
  (i) qualifications of the author, and his/her work situation;
  (ii) his/her standing as an expert in the subject field;
  (iii) his/her previous writings on the subject;
  (iv) his/her publications and their acceptability to the subject area at large;
  (v) identification of the persons who have contributed to the intellectual or artistic content. This then allows the checking of the above mentioned points of each contributor.

(b) sources which those who have contributed to the intellectual or artistic content have used in their writing. These are usually listed in the bibliography of information resources consulted;

(c) reputation of the publisher which has produced the information resource.

Clues to these questions may be found in

(i) introduction to the work;
(ii) table of contents;
(iii) dust jacket blurb;
(iv) publisher's blurb;
(v) biographical details of those responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of the work;

(vi) opinion of an expert in the subject area concerned e.g. a science teacher who may be able to help with a science reference book;

(vii) reputation of an association or learned society involved with the publication.

You may be able to think of additional ways to help check on the reliability of information included.

3. Arrangement of information

Reference sources should be well organised and easy to use in order that the information is readily retrieved.

There are many ways in which a reference source can be organised. These include:

(a) alphabetical as in a language dictionary;
(b) author/name;
(c) subject area or topic;
(d) chronologically or by time period.

You may be able to think of other ways to arrange information which are not alphabetical. When reference sources are arranged in a manner which is not purely alphabetical, the term used to describe the arrangement is classified.

Clues to assessing ease of use in relation to arrangement are:

(i) presence of a comprehensive index;
(ii) table of contents, and the amount of detail included;
(iii) level of cross referencing in the text and the index;
(iv) acceptability of the terms used, in that they are familiar and frequently used terms by experts in the subject field.

4. Ease of use

The physical format of a reference source can determine the degree of acceptability of the work by the school librarian. There are many ways to consider ease of use. These can include:

(i) does the resource, particularly if a book, lie flat when opened?
(ii) is the print legible and well spaced?
(iii) are the pages well laid out graphically?
(iv) are sufficient headings and sub-headings used?
(v) how well do the preface, table of contents, text, bibliography, index and other features fit together to form a total entity.

5. Additional features to complement the printed word

The main feature to be considered is illustrative material. This can include drawings, illustrations, diagrams, maps, charts, photographs and other graphic media.

These will usually help add to the value of the printed word. However, it is necessary to consider illustrative material in relation to:

(a) degree of reliability;
(b) location of the illustrative material in relation to the text which it supports;
(c) objectivity of illustrative material included.

You may be able to think of other points to consider when evaluating the total contribution of illustrative material to a work.

Clues to consider include:

(i) date of the production of the illustrative material;
(ii) wording of the captions to support the illustrative material;

(iii) location of the illustrative material;

(iv) inclusion of the scale on the maps, and how up-to-date is the information in relation to political boundaries and changes.

6. Objectivity of the information presented

It is often difficult to assess whether or not all points of view on a subject or a topic are fully presented in a reference source. This may be even more difficult if the reader does not have any knowledge of the subject concerned. To help decide on the objectivity and depth of coverage in a reference source, it is possible to:

(a) check on the reputation of the author and the publisher;

(b) read relevant book reviews.

In some situations, lack of objectivity may be acceptable. In the case of an encyclopaedia written for an American audience, this will be normally stated in the preface. The acknowledgement of this emphasis on relating matters to the U.S.A. and its interests make the degree of objectivity acceptable. You will find other examples of national, political and ideological emphasis in reference sources, and you will need to be aware of that emphasis when using them. Soemtimes the point if view and emphasis expressed in a reference source will be different to those of the school librarian.

Lack of objectivity in a reference source is unacceptable where this lack is not acknowledged. This is called bias. Examples of bias would be an encyclopaedia on world affairs which did not mention the developing countries, or which distorted the history of a country by omitting events of the colonial periods.

Some approaches to check the objectivity of a reference source include:

(a) check an event, place etc. about which you have some detailed knowledge, particularly in relation to your own country;
(b) check the introduction, preface, blurb and/or the background of authors and publisher for suggestions of a particular cultural, moral, religious or intellectual background;
(c) check for the omission of any aspect of a subject.

7. Level of information

It is important to know the level of audience for which the reference source has been written. There are many ways of categorising audience level. We shall use three levels.

(a) those who have no specialised knowledge of a subject, and therefore need information written in an easy style with no jargon or other difficult language. Information presented in this way is often described as being written at the popular level;
(b) those who have an in-depth knowledge of a subject. They are familiar with technical terms and need no simplification of the material. Material written in this way is usually called scholarly;
(c) children and adult new readers for whom reference sources are written in a simplified form. In these resources, short sentences and a limited vocabulary are used. Usually there are many illustrations, maps, diagrams, pictures, etc. included to help explain the text.

Understanding the level at which a reference source has been written may be carried out using the following approaches;

(i) read the introduction and the blurb which may give an indication of the level for which intended;

(ii) read something from the reference source on a topic about which you know nothing. Your ease of understanding, or the problems you face in comprehending the subject content will help you determine the level;

(iii) read a review of the reference source, and the review may state the intended audience level.

8. Degree of currency of information included

In many subject areas, it is necessary to have the most up-to-date information, particularly in subject areas where there are constant and rapid changes such as science and technology. In subject areas such as history, currency of information is not as important.

To check the recency of a reference source, the school librarian may consider the following:

(a) check date of publication;

(b) check the date of the information used in the publication e.g. dates of maps, dates of statistics used;

(c) check the publication date of information resources listed in the bibliographies which are included in the reference source;

(d) check illustrations which may give you a clue as to how up-to-date the information is e.g.

  (i) the dress of the people in a photograph;

  (ii) the type of transport used in photographs;

  (iii) signs on displays and business enterprises which may help to date the photograph;

(e) check if recent changes in name, geographical boundaries and political events have been recorded e.g. is the independence of Tuvalu mentioned?

(f) check to see if the publishers have made any statements of policy on the revision of the reference source.

When examining any reference source, the school librarian will need to consider all these points, particularly when selecting resources for the school library. These criteria for evaluation may vary for types of reference source. You will learn through experience as to which criteria are most appropriate to each type of reference source.

The types of reference source most frequently found in the reference collection in the school library are:

1. dictionaries;
2. encyclopaedias;
3. directories;
4. handbooks;
5. manuals;
6. yearbooks;
7. atlases.

We shall now examine each type, and you will gain an understanding of how to apply the evaluative criteria to each type of reference source to gain the most effective appraisal of each title.

1. Dictionaries

Definition: a dictionary is a collection of words and phrases usually arranged in alphabetical order.

In relation to each word or phrase, you can gain the following:

(a) spelling;
(b) meaning;
(c) syllabication;
(d) pronunciation.

Sometimes a dictionary may include illustrations which help explain the text. They may also include synonyms, quotations to illustrate the use of a word, and slang versions of a particular word. As you become familiar with a range of dictionaries, you will realise that they may contain additional information which has not been listed above.

A dictionary can be used to find out:

(a) how to spell a word;
(b) how to pronounce a word;
(c) a similar or alternative word or item, known as a synonym;
(d) the word meaning in general;
(e) the meaning of a word in a subject context - this is sometimes known as jargon.

In a reference situation when the school librarian has little knowledge about the question being asked, a dictionary is often the first reference source consulted. The use of the dictionary will help clarify terms before proceeding to undertake a further literature search for more detailed information.

There are many types of dictionaries, and we shall consider four of the major types.

(a) general language;
(b) illustrated;
(c) foreign language;
(d) subject.

(a) General language dictionaries give information about frequently used words in a particular language. The scope of these dictionaries will vary in accordance with the level of the intended audience. Sometimes they aim to be comprehensive, and sometimes they only list the key words, or a selection of terms. When there is a selection made, the term used is abridged.

Other terms which may also mean abridged are college, desk or concise.

Some frequently used dictionaries of the English language are:

(i) *Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976. 6th ed.*

(ii) *Random House College Dictionary. New York: Random House, 1975.*

(iii) *Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary. Melbourne: Lothian, 1977.*

You will find other English language dictionaries in addition to those listed. However, they will be used by the school librarian in the same way to answer questions about the English language and its usage.

(b) Illustrated dictionaries are of value to children and new adult readers. In addition to the basic information given in general dictionaries, illustrations including photographs are included, and these help to describe items which are difficult to describe using only words.

Examples of illustrated dictionaries include:

(i) *New Oxford Illustrated Dictionary. Melbourne: Oxford University Press, 1978. 2V.*

(ii) *American Heritage Dictionary of the English language. Boston: Houghton - Mifflin, 1978.*

(iii) *Picture Dictionary. by R. Scarry. London: Collins, 1978.*

(c) Foreign language dictionaries give the meaning of foreign language words in a language understood by the reader. The dictionary will also allow the reader to find the foreign language equivalent of a word in the language being used by the reader.

For the English language, the Harrap Publishing Company has published many foreign language dictionaries. Two examples of this type of dictionary are:

(i) *Harrap's New Standard French and English Dictionary. London: Harrap, 1972. 2V.*

(ii) *Harrap's Standard German and English Dictionary. London: Harrap, 1974. (in progress)*

Another company which is involved in the publishing of foreign langauge dictionaries is Cassell. You may be able to identify some of their publications, and you may be able to identify other publishing companies involved in foreign language dictionary publishing.

Some examples of Pacific language-English language dictionaries are:

(i) *Hawaiian Dictionary: Hawaiian - English, English - Hawaiian. by M.K. Pakui and S.H. Elbert. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1971.*

(ii) *Jacadanda Dictionary and Grammar of Melanesian Pidgin. by F. Milhalie. Milton, Qld.: Jacaranda Press, 1971.*

(iii) *Samoan Dictionary: Samoan - English, English - Samoan. by G.B. Milner. London: Oxford University Press, 1966.*

(d) Subject. Most subjects such as science, music, library science, politics have their own special words. These words are often called jargon. To a person who is unfamiliar with the subject, these words or jargon are hard to understand. Special dictionaries have been published to help in these situations. Sometimes these special dictionaries include a great deal of information and detail about the meaning of a word, in addition to the definition of the word. This type of dictionary can therefore be very useful in answering quick-reference questions on the subject.

Examples of subject dictionaries are:

(i) *Dictionary of Physical Sciences. by J. Daintith. New York: Pica, 1977.*
(ii) *Dictionary of Contemporary American Artists. by P. Cummings. 3rd ed. New York: St. Martins Press, 1977.*
(iii) *Dictionary of Indian Pseudonyms. by Amitabha Chatterjee. Calcutta: Mukherji Book House, 1977.*
(iv) *Penguin Dictionary of Geology. London: Allen Lane, 1978.*

You will be able to identify many other subject dictionaries for use in the school library. Many of these will have been wrtiten for the school student and the new adult reader.

2. Encyclopaedias

Definition: an encyclopaedia is a reference source which contains a series of short and condensed articles on a wide range of subjects. The articles are usually written by specialists, and are usually not intended for persons with a deep knowledge on a specific topic.

Most encyclopaedias come in several volumes, and often have a range of illustrations.

An encyclopaedia is generally used by a school librarian to gain:

(a) general background information on a subject for a non-specialist;
(b) brief factual answers to questions beginning with the words - who?, what?, where?, when?, how?
(c) guidance to other and more detailed sources of information. Encyclopaedias often include suggestions for further reading on a topic or subject.

Encyclopaedias are among the first reference sources to be consulted in a search for information on a topic. They usually have an index to their contents, and are commonly arranged in alphabetic order by topic or subject heading.

Encyclopaedias can be grouped into a number of categories. We shall consider four types or categories:

(a) general adult;
(b) national;
(c) suitable for children;
(d) subject.

(a) General adult encyclopaedias. This type of encyclopaedia attempts to cover the major areas of knowledge in the world. This attempt at universality presents many problems to the editors and publishers of this type of encyclopaedia. This is due to the vast amount of knowledge in the world, and the rate at which the nature and amount of knowledge is growing and changing. This type of encyclopaedia often has to be selective in the material included, and keep up to date by publishing revised editions. In some cases, new information is made available once a year on an annual basis. This is called a yearbook, and will cover a calendar year. Some publishers have produced encyclopaedias which are issued in parts over a period of time on a regular basis such as each week, each fortnight or each month. They are kept in special binders, and come in this periodical or serial form. This type of encyclopaedia is often purchased from a newsagency.

Examples of general adult encyclopaedias include the following:

(i) *World Book Encyclopaedia. Chicago: World Book, 1980. 24V.*

(ii) *New Columbia Encyclopaedia. 4th ed. New York: Columbia University Press, 1975.*

(iii) *New Encyclopaedia Britannica. 15th ed. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1975. 30V.*

(b) National encyclopaedias. These national encyclopaedias are confined in their coverage to one country or one geographic area such as the South Pacific or Latin America. Such encyclopaedias attempt to be exhaustive in their coverage over a time period of all information about the country or geographic area. They will be concerned with both historical information and current information about language, people, places, government, politics, education, environment, etc. You will be able to think of other subject areas which should be included in a national encyclopaedia. A national encyclopaedia will be biased towards the country or geographic area included in its title. You will need to remember this when selecting and using such reference resources in the school library.

Examples of national encyclopaedias include:

(i) *Encyclopaedia of Latin America. New York: McGraw Hill, 1974.*

(ii) *La Gran Enciclopedia de Puerto Rico. Madrid: Ed. r., 1976. 14V.*

(iii) *Encyclopedia Americana. New York: Encyclopedia Americana. Continuous revision. 30V.*

(iv) *Encyclopedia Canadiana. Ottawa: Canadiana Company. Continuous revision. 10V.*

(v) *Encyclopaedia of Papua and New Guinea. Melbourne: Melbourne University Press, 1972. 3V.*

You may be wondering about the term, continuous revision. This means the editors and publishers are constantly changing the information included in their publications, and that they do not produce new editions of the work.

This use of continuous revision can present problems to the user of the information, including:

(i) difficulty in determining the currency of the information;
(ii) difficulty in identifying the authority of the contributions;
(iii) problems in identifying omissions, bias and gaining an overall assessment of the reference source.

When selecting or using an encyclopaedia which has a policy of continuous revision, the school librarian must take particular care in using the information.

(c) Encyclopaedias suitable for children. These are compiled on the same principles as for general adult encyclopaedias. However, they are written at a level more suitable for children and contain a large number of illustrations.

Examples include:

(i) *Britannica Junior. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica. Continuous revision. 15V.*

(ii) *Encyclopaedia International. New York: Grolier. Continuous revision. 20V.*

(iii) *Compton's Picture Encyclopedia. Chicago: Comptons. Continuous revision. 24V.*

(d) Subject encyclopaedias. As you will now be aware, it is not possible to place all knowledge on all subjects in a reference work or source. This has contributed to the production and publication of a range of subject encyclopaedias, each dealing with one particular subject. This type of encyclopaedia may have one volume, or several. In most respects, the generalist encyclopaedia and the subject encyclopaedia are similar in approach with the exception that the subject encyclopaedia is written usually for specialists.

Examples of subject encyclopaedias include:

(i) *Encyclopaedia of Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1971. 10V.

(ii) *McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology: an International Reference Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977. 15V.

(iii) *Illustrated Encyclopaedia of Transportation*. London: Reference International, 1977

You will come to study a wide range of encyclopaedias as a school librarian, and you will have to make professional decisions about their suitability, selection and use in your work environment.

3. Directories

Definition: a directory is a list of persons or organisations arranged in a systematic manner, usually in alphabetic or classified order.

The word organisation means the same as corporate body, a term with which you are familiar. The term organisation or corporate body includes associations, institutions, business firms, nonprofit enterprises, governments, government agencies, religious bodies, local churches and conferences.

The information listed in a directory will depend upon the type of directory. In a school library, you may have many directories, and you will become aware of the differing patterns in the range of directories and listings kept in the school library reference collection.

Directories are commonly used to locate:

(a) correct spelling and full name of an individual or an organisation;

(b) correct address, telephone number, telex code or contact information for an individual or an organisation;
(c) biographical information on individuals;
(d) details about an organisation, its history and the services the organisation offers.

These may include:

(i) description of a product offered by a company;
(ii) courses offered by a university, a polytechnic or similar educational institution;
(iii) services available to members of a community within a specified geographic location.

You may be able to think of other types of information which can be located from directories that you might use in a school library.

There are several ways in which directories may be grouped or categorised. We shall discuss directories in three groups or categories. They are:

(a) organisational directories;
(b) local service directories;
(c) biographical directories.

(a) Organisational directories. This type of directory may be compiled on any one of the following bases:
  (i) local on the basis of geographic area, listing a range of community groups. Examples include the telephone directory; list of local clubs and societies in a town or city; list of schools, both government and non-government in a geographic area.
  (ii) listing of government at all levels and their activities, e.g. guide to the functions, and the names of officers employed by various government departments and agencies;

(iii) listing of commercial organisations and companies, and the services they offer.

Sometimes a directory will combine all the information which might be included in the above three categories. Examples of such directories will include:

(i) telephone directory of a country, town or other geographic area;

(ii) American Art Directory. New York: Bowker, 1976. 46th ed.

(iii) Fiji Library Directory. Suva: Fiji Library Association, 1981.

(b) Local service directories. In recent years, this type of directory has become more common. These directories often aim to provide information on a fairly limited geographic area such as a region. Some may list services available to a special or discreet group of persons such as children or the disabled. The information contained in these directories relates to the services available for the community from people and organisations, including volunteers and voluntary organisations.

Characteristics of these directories include:

(i) often compiled and produced by local groups from information gathered by the local group concerned;

(ii) not always published in a formal sense;

(iii) often distributed free of charge;

(iv) names, addresses, opening hours, services offered, contact persons' names, groups eligible to use service;

(v) poor arrangements to revise the information included;

(vi) emphasis on information for everyday problems rather than subject related problems.

This is a valuable type of reference resource. In the absence of a suitable directory for a particular community, it is possible for a library to develop its own local directory.

Examples of some formally published directories:

(i) *Directory of Community Welfare Services. Sydney: Council of Social Service of New South Wales. 2V looseleaf.*

(ii) *Directory of Services for Disabled People. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service, 1977.*

(c) Biographical directories. These directories are often known as biographic directories. They give information on the lives of individuals. The scope of these directories varies, particularly in relation to the criteria for inclusion. Sometimes only living persons will be included and sometimes deceased persons are also included. Photographs are included sometimes.

The nature of these directoires can be divided into three broad categories.

(i) general international directories which list well-known people in all fields and all countries, e.g.

Webster's Biographical Dictionary: A Dictionary of Names of Noteworthy Persons. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam, 1980.

(ii) national directories which are confined to the persons of one country, e.g.

Who's Who in Australia. Melbourne: Herald and Weekly Times, 1980. 23rd ed. Published every three years.

(iii) occupational directories which give information on persons in a particular occupation, e.g. theatre, medicine or science. One example is:

Biographical Dictionary of Australian Librarians.
Melbourne: Burwood State College, 1979.

4. Handbooks

Definition: a handbook generally provides how-to-do-it information, and other frequently needed information. The information contained in handbooks is also found in other sources, but not in such a condensed or concise form.

In many ways, handbooks are like subject guides, dictionaries and encyclopaedias. Characteristics include:

(a) brief factual information on a topic;
(b) how-to-do-it information;
(c) brief overview of the stage of development in a particular subject field.

Examples of handbooks are:

(i) *A Librarian's Handbook. London: Library Association, 1980. 2V.*

(ii) *Handbook of Data Processing for Libraries. by R.M. Hayes and J. Becker. Los Angeles: Melville Publications, 1974.*

(iii) *Handbook of Chemistry and Physics: A Ready-reference Book of Chemical and Physical Data. Bosco, Fla: Chemical Rubber Co. Annual.*

5. Manuals

Definition: a manual is similar to a handbook, but usually gives procedural information on how to undertake a task, to make an item, or to construct a house. Sometimes they may be general, and other times specific to a subject.

Manuals are more concerned with how-to-do-it information. Examples of manuals are:

(i) *Manual Style: For Authors, Editors and Copywriters.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969. 12th ed.

(ii) *Reader's Digest Complete Guide to Indoor Plants.* Sydney: Reader's Digest Services, 1980.

6. Yearbooks

Definition: a yearbook records activities and developments, generally over a one year period, in a country, a subject or some other clearly defined specialised area. A *yearbook* usually contains information and statistics relevant to the period covered.

Another type of publication similar to a *yearbook* is an almanac, sometimes also spelt *almanack*. An *almanac*, in addition to giving current information, will include retrospective and historical material. It also aims to give brief details and facts about a particular country or geographic area.

Information found in *yearbooks* and *almanacs* will be found in other reference sources, but not in such a concise or condensed form.

Yearbooks and *almanacs* are consulted to obtain:

(a) briefly stated facts and statistics;
(b) names and addresses of organisations and people;
(c) information about countries;
(d) overview of developments in a particular subject field or geographic area within the time span covered;
(e) an up-date of information contained in encyclopaedias and other similar publications.

Examples of *yearbooks* and *almanacs* are:

(i) *Guinness Book of Records.* London: Guinness Superlatives. Annual.

(ii) *Americana Annual: Yearbook of the Encyclopaedia Americana. Chicago: Encyclopedia Americana. Annual.*

(iii) *Pacific Islands Year Book. Sydney: Pacific Publications. Irregular.*

(iv) *World Almanac and Book of Facts. New York: Doubleday. Annual.*

(v) *Whitaker's Almanack. London: Whitaker. Annual.*

(vi) *Stateman's Year-book: Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the World. New York: St. Martins Press. Annual.*

In addition to yearbooks and almanacs, which appear in a bound form, there are many loose-leaf reference services. These are usually issued on a weekly basis, and filed by the library in a special folder supplied by the publisher. The information contained in these loose-leaf reference services is:

(a) similar in coverage to yearbooks and almanacs;

(b) more up-to-date at the time of publication than yearbooks and almanacs.

Two examples of loose-leaf reference services are:

(i) *Facts on File: Weekly World News Digest With Cumulative Index. New York: Facts on File.*

(ii) *Keesing's Comtemporary Archives: Weekly Record of Important World Events. London: Keesing.*

7. Atlases

Definition: an atlas is a collection of maps bound together and with an index or gazeteer. They may be national, regional, thematic or international.

An atlas is one type of reference source used to answer questions of a geographical or environmental nature. Other types of similar reference source are:

(a) maps;
(b) gazetteers;
(c) guidebooks.

We shall examine each type of what are known as geographic reference sources.

Geographic reference sources are used to answer questions such as:

(a) what is the capital of Vanuatu?
(b) through what Pacific Islands does the Equator run?
(c) what historical buildings should I see when I visit Auckland?
(d) how deep is the harbour at Suva?
(e) which hotels can I stay in at Honiara?

We shall now consider each major type of geographic reference source within these three groups:

(a) maps and atlases;
(b) gazetteers;
(c) guidebooks.

(a) Maps and atlases. A map is a flat representation of part or all of the earth's surface. An atlas is a collection of maps bound together in a book format.

The information contained in these works will include:

(i) physical features such as mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes;
(ii) man-made features of the environment such as roads, bridges, canals, railways, harbours, dams, etc.;
(iii) political boundaries, e.g. states of the United States of America: boundaries within a town;

(iv) thematic, e.g. where does taro grow in the South Pacific: where is uranium mined in the world.

Examples of atlases are:

(i) *New Penguin World Atlas. Edited by P. Hall. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979.*

(ii) *Archaeological Atlas of the World. by D. Whitehouse and R. Whitehouse. London: Thames and Hudson, 1975.*

(iii) *Atlas of African History. London: Edward Arnold, 1978.*

(iv) *Times Atlas of the World: Comprehensive Edition. London: Times Books, 1977.*

(b) Gazetteers. A gazetteer is a geographical dictionary which includes names of towns, villages, rivers, lakes and other geographical features. It often includes information on population, longitude and latitude. Most atlases include a gazetteer which also acts as an index to the maps in the atlas.

Examples of gazetteers are:

(i) *Stateman's Year-book World Gazetteer. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1975.*

(ii) *Bartholomew Gazetteer of Britain. Edinburgh: Bartholomew, 1977.*

(iii) *Columbia Lippincott Gazetteer of the World. New York: Columbia University Press, 1962.*

(c) Guidebooks. A guidebook is intended to present useful information for the traveller. Often this information is published for use outside the country concerned, but is very useful in the school library reference collection. A guidebook will usually include a brief overview of information on a country such as:

(i) geographical and historical facts;

(ii) accommodation details such as hotels, motels, guest houses, etc.;

(iii) local transportation details;
(iv) details of places to visit;
(v) maps, and gazetteer information;
(vi) photographs.

Many of these guidebooks appear in the conventional book form, and have been produced by commercial publishers. These publishers are specialists in this field, and will have produced the guidebooks in a series, either on an individual country basis, or a geographic area basis. They will be updated regularly.

The major publishers of these guidebooks which are comprehensive and published in a series format are:

(i) Michelin;
(ii) Roder;
(iii) Baedeker;
(iv) Blue guides (Muirhead).

They are published in many languages, as they attempt to cater for travellers from all countries of the world.

Another type of guidebook which is available for use by the public is published by those information agencies concerned with national promotion, and in particular tourism. These agencies will include the national airline of a particular country. The other important information agency which publishes such guide information is the tourist bureau. It may also be known as the tourist agency, the tourist commission or some other term. The tourist bureau produces a range of information about the geographic area in which it is operating and attempting to promote. Often this information is written in a language style at a simple basic level.

> The information is factual and up-to-date. It is presented in many physical forms including brochures, pamphlets and maps. These information resources are most valuable to the school librarian, the teacher and the students.

You will find that many reference sources such as encyclopaedias, handbooks, almanacs, yearbooks and annuals will include information of a geographical nature. You will need to remember certain points, and evaluate each one of these reference sources in relation to:

1. Nature of information included in the reference source;
2. Reliability of the information;
3. Arrangement of the information included in the reference source;
4. Ease of use;
5. Additional features other than the printed word;
6. Objectivity of the information presented;
7. Level of information in relation to the reading and intellectual level of the intended audience;
8. Degree of currency of information included, or how up-to-date is the information;
9. Geographic boundaries or parameters of the area to be included;
10. Time span of the information included.

Whether all these ten points are applicable for each reference source, that you as a school librarian will consider, will be your personal decision. You will come to realise that some of the above points are more relevant to the seven types of Basic reference source and may not always be applicable. As a school librarian, you will have to use these strategies, and apply them to your own work situation. You will probably find you may wish to add to, or modify this list of 10, as a school librarian. This is a proper and correct approach to your work as a school librarian, as you must relate to the school and the community which it serves. You must make sure that your selection of a reference work is valid, unbiased and not based on personal, subjective or biased points of view. You will only develop a balanced reference collection and provide effective reference service if you adopt this balanced, objective and professional approach.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION TWO (5.2)

1. Define the term reference source.
2. List the eight key areas which the school librarian should consider in the evaluation of reference sources.
3. Explain each of the eight key areas which the school librarian should consider in the evaluation of reference sources.
4. List and explain the value of each of the four major types of dictionary most likely to be used by the school librarian. Give examples where relevant.
5. List and explain the value of each of the four major types of encyclopaedia most likely to be used by the school librarian. Give examples where relevant.
6. List and explain the value of each of the three major groupings of directories most likely to be used by the school librarian. Give examples where relevant.
7. List and describe some other types of reference resources most likely to be found in a school library.

5.3 REFERENCE COLLECTIONS

The term reference collection is one used widely in the provision of library and information service. All libraries will have a reference collection, the size of which will vary from library to library. The term means:

> a special collection of information resources required to respond to specific requests for information by individual users.

This reference collection is used to assist the library staff to offer reference service to the library community. The concept of reference service whereby specific requests for information are met forms part of the reader services of a library, and the activities carried out by library staff will include:

1. shelving information resources;
2. circulation of resources, and in particular arranging loans, whether they be from within the collection, or externally through inter-library loan;
3. promoting the use of the library;
4. instructing users in the correct use of the library and its resources;
5. involvement in extension activities;
6. advising and assisting users in the selection of relevant resources to meet their information needs.

The readers services staff in a library such as the University of the South Pacific will be larger in number. In a small public library, a special library and a school library, where there may be only one or two staff, all staff will have to be involved in reader services work, including reference work and maintenance of the reference collection. In a school library, the reference work is usually undertaken by the school librarian with some assistance from the school library assistant. The main task of the school library assistant is to participate, under direction, in the maintenance and organisation of the reference collection.

Why have a reference collection in a library, and in particular, a school library? There are many reasons, but the main one is to help the library staff to provide a quick and effective information service in response to requests from teachers, students and other community members. Information resources which are designed to assist in the achievement of that service, are housed together in one sequence in a library. This is known as the reference collection, and information resources are usually marked with a special symbol R or REF. The resources in the reference collection are not normally available for loan, and must be used within the library. In some special cases, an item in the reference collection may be loaned for a short period such as:

1. to permit photocopying of part of the work;
2. an overnight loan, or weekend loan to allow the item to be used when the school library is closed.

When attempting to answer a reference question, the school librarian must remember that the answer may be found in any item whether it be in the reference collection, or in some other part of the school library collection. However, the school library catalogue and the reference collection are good places to begin the search for the information requested by the user. Sometimes when the school librarian finds a particular information resource is very good for answering questions on a particular subject, and there is a large demand to borrow the resource, another copy or copies is purchased and added to the reference and loan collection.

The school library may also operate a reserve collection as part of reader services. The reserve collection is different to the reference collection, being a small and constantly changing collection of information resources for which there is short-term, high demand. This demand is usually caused by a teacher setting students a task of information gathering on a topic for which there is a small number of relevant resources.

This segregation of these high demand resources helps gain a fairer loan and use pattern during a concentrated period of time. The loan period for such items may be one hour, two hours, overnight, weekends or some other relevant time period. Once the high demand is over, the resources should be returned to the loan collection. The organisation of the reserve collection requires close co-operation between the school library staff and the teachers, if the system is to operate effectively. Sometimes if a school library does not have a reserve collection, the high demand resources are placed in the reference collection.

The reference collection will consist of many resources, and these can be divided into two types as follows:

1. Resources which give the answer to a specific question, e.g. what is the height of Mt. Everest?

   This type which gives the answer, includes:

   (a) dictionaries;
   (b) encyclopaedias;
   (c) directories;
   (d) handbooks;
   (e) manuals;
   (f) yearbooks;
   (g) atlases.

2. Resources which direct the user to where the information may be found, e.g. an index which lists an article on Mt. Everest. In this case, the person searching for the information has to use a second source of information.

   This type which directs the user to the answer, includes:

(a) indexes, including indexes to periodicals;
(b) bibliographies;
(c) catalogues.

Most of the above reference resources are acquired by the school library, and are owned by the school. Sometimes the school will compile its own indexes, files and lists, if it requires a higher degree of specifity than is available in the published resources. One example relates to the school library's compilation of its own community resource file. Such a file or index will contain a range of information about the community, its people and organisations etc. which are of value to the school.

No reference collection can hope to contain such a comprehensive collection of reference resources to answer all requests for information. When a request for information cannot be answered from the collection, it is necessary to approach another library or information agency for assistance. This is common practice amongst those who participate in the information network. There is a code of professional practice to be observed when requesting assistance from an external source. The school library is often not able to answer all information requests from its own resources, and tends to ask the public library for help. Sometimes they may approach another nearby library, but this will depend on the location of the school. In a rural area, there may be no nearby library to which the school library may turn for immediate help. The methods of requesting help will include:

1. personal visit to another library;
2. letter or memorandum;
3. telephone conversation;
4. telex;
5. satellite conversation;
6. telefacsimile transmission.

You may be able to think of other methods in your own environment. One additional method of obtaining help is to use an on-line system to a computerised data-base system located somewhere else, perhaps in another city, or another country of the world.

The questions asked by users can be divided according to the type of question asked. A commonly used approach is:

1. Directional questions such as:

    (a) where is the catalogue?
    (b) where is the video equipment kept?

    These questions are quick to answer, and are usually answered without consulting any reference resources. This type of question accounts for a large proportion of questions asked in a library. They do not require professional expertise, although librarians are often asked these questions.

2. Quick reference questions such as:

    (a) what is the capital city of Tonga?
    (b) what is the main agricultural industry in the Solomon Islands?

    These questions are also known as ready reference questions. They require factual answers in response to questions beginning with who, what, when, where, how, or why.

    As the name given to this type of question implies, they usually do not take long to answer. These questions also account for a large proportion of enquiries to libraries. The majority may be answered by consulting a limited selection of reference resources and in the school library situation can easily be dealt with by the school library assistant.

3. Subject related questions such as:

   (a) independence for Fiji,
   (b) development of tourism in Tuvalu.

   These questions are similar to quick reference questions. However, the main difference is that with a subject-related question a larger number of resources may be needed to answer the question. Answers may be through a chapter in a book, an article in an encyclopaedia, a periodical article, a 16mm film or a set of slides. Sometimes a combination of resources may be presented to the enquirer.

   This type of question involves the use of the catalogue, indexes, lists and bibliographies in order to trace the resources required.

   The school library assistant can assist with the preliminary work, however, the school librarian should be involved with these questions. This is particularly true for questions which require the use of resources outside the school, or outside the range of reference resources held in the library.

4. Research questions such as:

   (a) what archaeological evidence is there on the first settlers in Tuvalu?
   (b) can you get me all the information available on the latest video equipment suitable for use in the South Pacific?

   This type of question is an extension of the subject related question. To answer research questions effectively, the school librarian will need to make an extensive and in-depth use of a wide range of information resources. Often the school librarian will seek help from a number of external agencies to provide a satisfactory answer.

These are the four major categories of reference question likely to be asked of school library staff. They are:

1. directional questions;
2. quick reference questions;
3. subject related questions;
4. research questions.

You should now be able to think about the major differences between the types of question.

The major differences can be listed as follows:

1. amount of effort required in terms of time needed to answer them;
2. level of skill and knowledge of reference resources is greater as one moves from the simple directional questions to research questions;
3. form of the answer for each type is different. The directional question requires an immediate verbal response. At the other end of the scale, the research question will require detailed resources e.g. copies of periodical articles, illustrations, a bibliography, a book on the topic, or a 16mm film.

The reference collection in a school library cannot remain static. It should be constantly reviewed as new information resources become available. With reference information work, it is important that the most up-to-date information is passed to the teacher or student. There are some exceptions to the need for this currency, particularly when the question is set with a time frame. Such questions might be:

1. What was the population of Honiara in 1976?
2. How much rain fell in Suva in July 1980?
3. How many tourists visited Western Samoa in 1970?

Whilst it is important to have current resources, it is important to keep some older or retrospective resources to help answer questions of an historical nature.

Selecting resources for the reference collection is a difficult task. You will remember from Basic reference works that there are 10 points to consider in evaluating reference sources. They are:

1. Nature of information included;
2. Reliability of the information;
3. Arrangement of the information included in the reference source;
4. Ease of use;
5. Additional features other than the printed word, such as illustrations or photographs;
6. Objectivity of the information presented;
7. Level of information in relation to the reading and intellectual level of the intended audience;
8. Degree of currency of information included, or how up-to-date is the information;
9. Geographic boundaries or parameters of the area to be included;
10. Time span of the information included.

You may be aware of additional points to be considered.

The reference collection in a school library will vary in accordance with:

(a) the nature of the school and its programme;
(b) the level of school based curriculum development;
(c) the amount of money which is allocated to that part of the school's total library collection.

The reference collection will comprise a range of resources covering all areas of knowledge, and need to be objective and balanced in its total coverage. You will need to apply the criteria for selection which you have considered earlier in the course. You must make sure that your selection is not based on personal, subjective or biased points of view. You will only develop a balanced reference collection and provide a reference service if you adopt this balanced, objective and professional approach.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION THREE (5.3)

1. List some of the services which you would expect to have provided by the reader services staff of a library.

2. List and explain the functions of a reference collection in a school library.

3. Outline the difference between a reserve collection and a reference collection in a school library.

4. List, describe and explain the four major categories of reference question likely to be asked of the school library staff.

5.4 COMPILING INFORMATION RESOURCE LISTS

The school librarian has the responsibility to make sure that teachers and students are alerted to what resources are available in the school library, and in other relevant library and information agencies. Sometimes they will use published sources which have been compiled and published, either by the book and media trade, or another information agency such as a national library. The use of these publications such as the national bibliography, a union catalogue of serials, or the catalogue of a film lending library are mostly of value when using resources located in external sources. The school library staff will need to compile their own lists of information resources as they promote the use of the school library, and its information resources and services.

The lists are often called booklists or bibliographies. Whatever they are called does not really matter. The important thing is that they are an awareness or alerting device compiled in the school to make sure that teachers and students know what information resources on a topic or theme are available. These awareness devices or alerting devices may make a statement about how these information resources may be used to help achieve educational aims and objectives of the school.

The term bibliography is a very broad one, and has several meanings. The context in which the term is used here relates to a listing of information resources. In compiling the bibliography, the compiler will have used a particular theme, and will have attempted to be systematic in his/her task. Bibliographies may be regional, national, subject, type of material in the range of information resources. The important approach to bibliographies is that they must fit into the guidelines decided by the compiler and the person requesting the compilation of the bibliography. Decisions in formulating guidelines for compiling a bibliography should include:

(a) physical form of information resources to be included e.g. only periodical articles, only books, exclude videotapes; or, include everything. It is important to define the physical form, as there is no point in including microfiche, if the teacher or the student does not have access to a microfiche reader;

(b) the language in which the information resources have been produced e.g. only English; only French or in a local dialect.

(c) the age of the information resource; that means date of publication. Perhaps the teacher is only interested in resources published in 1982; perhaps the request may be for resources published in the last five years, or the request may have no time restrictions;

(d) place of publication of the information resource may be a further restriction; e.g. the teacher may only want resources published in the Solomon Islands, or Western Samoa, or perhaps Africa;

(e) the audience level at which the information resource has been designed; e.g. suitable for primary school children; new adult literates or an expert in the subject area such as university/polytechnic educated person;

(f) availability of the information resource; is it held in the school library; the nearby public library; a special library, or in some other information agency. It is not a good idea to list information resources which are not readily available. The reasons for this are that the teacher will be disappointed in not having access to the resource and your own ability as a school librarian.

You may be able to think of other decisions that you would need to make when compiling a bibliography. In addition to the six points that have been mentioned, you must be able to clearly identify the subject about which the bibliography is to be compiled.

For example if a request for the compilation of a bibliography on fishing was received, in addition to the six points mentioned earlier, we need to identify what is required, as fishing is a broad subject. You may be able to think of some of the aspects in which the teachers and students may be interested. Areas of a greater degree of specifity may be:

(a) the type of fish caught;
(b) the type of boats used;
(c) the type of nets used by the boats to catch the fish;
(d) the use to which the fish will be put;
(e) the geographic area in which the fishing is undertaken.

To define this level of specifity, it is necessary for the school librarian and the teacher to have a full discussion to identify the parameters of the subject, and the other decisions about physical form, language, time period, place, audience level and availability. Such an interview will determine the level of precision which the school librarian may be able to achieve in his/her bibliography compilation. Unless you as the school librarian develop this strategy style, you will never be sure what is required by the teacher.

Another question which must be resolved in the compilation of bibliographies is the bibliographic style and level of citation which is to be used. Any bibliography must give sufficient information to permit retrieval of the items which are listed. To retrieve the information a specific location (where the item is held) must be given, generally a call number used in the library where the resource is held. When a school library compiles a bibliography, and includes resources from external sources, the location of that resource must be included. Thus if a school library is to provide bibliographies for teachers and students, the school library staff must know how to identify the locations of relevant information resources. This can be achieved through:

(a) developing a collection of other libraries published catalogues and indexes;
(b) developing personal knowledge about other relevant libraries and information agencies and their holdings of information resources;
(c) using union catalogues available as part of the information network.

Most libraries now use a bibliographic style which is consistent with *AACR 2*. The level may be at:

(i) first level of description;
(ii) second level of description;
(iii) third level of description.

These various levels are described in *AACR 2*, and if you are not sure of these, you can find them listed in *AACR 2 p. 15*. Most school libraries will only use the first level of description, and in many cases will use an abbreviated form even at a lower level than the first level of description. The decision of the level of citation required is of a personal nature in relation to the specific school library. However, if school libraries are to be part of the information network, their standard of bibliographic description must be acceptable to the other members of the information system or network.

The key areas to be given for accurate identification when an item is to be described, include:

(i) statement of the key person/or persons responsible for the intellectual or artistic content of the publication under discussion;
(ii) title, and where relevant, subtitle and parallel title;
(iii) a statement about the publication, and where relevant, a statement about edition details;

(iv) a statement about the physical description of the information resource. This is a highly complex matter, and you will learn about bibliographic description in Section 6. Sometimes when you are compiling a bibliography, and you have chosen an item which is composed of two or more information resources, there may be problems in the level of bibliographic description.

In compiling a bibliography, the compiler must make sure that each item can be individually and uniquely described, so that it cannot be confused with any other item. This is why the *ISBN* has been developed for books and the *ISSN* has been developed for periodical or serial publications. The *ISBN* and *ISSN* are ways of making this description individual and unique, as no other item will have the same *ISBN* or *ISSN*. This abbreviation *ISBN* stands for *International Standard Book Number*. The abbreviation *ISSN* stands for *International Standard Serial Number*. This means that no two serials or periodicals will have the same *ISSN*, even though their titles may be the same. Each title can be uniquely described. Therefore when compiling an *information resource list* or a similar *information index*, it is important that the *ISBN* or *ISSN* be cited correctly.

When compiling a *bibliography* or a *booklist* for a teacher, you may be asked to give some additional information about the intellectual content of the work. When this is done you are writing an *annotation* or an *abstract*. The writing of *annotations and abstracts* helps the teacher and the student when deciding what resources on the list might be suitable to meet their information needs. The preparation of *annotations* and *abstracts* is a specialised task, and requires a high degree of objectivity when writing for use by teachers and students. The term *annotation* can be defined as:

> a statement which describes, explains, elucidates and sometimes evaluates, especially such as a note added to an entry in a bibliography, a reading list or a catalogue.

The purpose of the annotation may be to:

(1) give additional information about the author, or information about someone else who has contributed to the intellectual or artistic content of the work;

(2) make a statement, or short summary about the subject content of the work;

(3) make a statement about the importance of a work eg.it may have received a book award, or achieved some other level of importance;

(4) make a statement about the suitability of a work in relation to bias, reading age level, subject content level, or suitability for a teaching programme;

(5) make a statement about the work and how it may be used in teaching, and in curriculum development activities.

The art of writing an annotation is a specialised technique, and requires a high level of training and understanding. In the school library environment, the art of writing an annotation which makes a book or a film sound exciting to a teacher or student requires a good knowledge about the book or film being examined. As a school librarian, you will be required to prepare a large number of annotations, and you must be able to pass objective comment on any item for which you are writing an annotation. When writing an annotation, you should consider the following:

(1) the degree of objectivity used in presenting the information. This means the coverage is fair in that it presents all points of view on the subject, or is only one point of view expressed;

(2) the degree of suitability of the information presented in relation to the intended audience: how relevant for your own country is the information resource being considered, and is there a biased point of view. You will have to decide that in relation to your

point of view, as people from another country or another cultural background, may have a different point of view.

(3) the degree of appropriateness: whilst you may agree the work is suitable, it may not be appropriate to introduce. You, as a school librarian will have to consider the concept of intellectual freedom and freedom of access to information in such a situation.

When preparing an annotation about an information resource, you must be prepared to be critical or supportive. Whether you are supportive or critical, you must be able to give a statement to support your comments. Not only must you make these comments, you must be prepared to have your name identified with your statement. This is usually done by giving full details of the persons passing comment on the work. Anybody who is prepared to make a supportive or critical comment about an information resource must be identifiable.

As a school librarian, when you prepare an information resource list for use by teachers, students and others in your education system, you must be objective. Remember that in all situations, there can be more than one point of view or interpretation, and as a school librarian you will need to be objective. You will have to place your beliefs, views and approaches to life in a perspective which will allow the free flow of knowledge and information.

When you prepare an annotation for an information resource, you must consider:

(1) the style of writing, and any bias which you may be able to detect;
(2) the use of language, its style and its relevance to the intended audience;
(3) the type of illustrations, pictures and photographs which contribute to the total presentation of information;

(4) the total package of information which blends text and illustration, or some other artistic or intellectual form together;

(5) the bias, or level of thrust in the information resource.

You may be able to think of other points to be considered. There will be additional points particularly when you are evaluating non-print resources.

The other term abstract is also important in relation to information resources. It is an extended or special form of an annotation. An abstract can be defined as:

> a summary that gives the essential points of the content of a book, a pamphlet, a periodical article or some other information resource.

All abstracts must give an adequate bibliographic description for each information resource being considered. You have already become aware of the elements of bibliographic description, and should be able to list these.

The art of preparing an abstract is a highly specialised one, and some people earn their living by just preparing abstracts. They are known as abstractors. In the school library, annotations are usually prepared, and not abstracts. However, the school librarian, teachers, and students may use abstracts which have been prepared externally from the school, to help evaluate information resources held in the school library or some other information agency.

Abstracts are usually prepared to indicate the content of an information resource to a prospective or potential information user. They tend to be prepared for information users other than school students, and are normally used by specialists in a particular subject area. Examples may be:

(1) a teacher who has a specialist background in education;
(2) a doctor who has specialist knowledge in medicine and health care;
(3) a marine biologist who has a specialist background in marine science, and in particular fish and other creatures of the sea;
(4) an engineer who has specialist knowledge in building and bridge construction.

You may be able to think of other professional people who need to have access to up-to-date information in relation to their jobs or work situation, irrespective of where in the world, the information first became available or was published. Many abstracting services are published throughout the world, and these abstracting services list, and pass comment on information resources in a particular subject field. Some titles that you might examine are:

(1)

(2) (Examples to be added according to availability in particular country)

(3)

The abstract can be written from many points of view, and can be described by a number of terms. We shall use three of those terms. They are indicative, informative and evaluative. You may discover other terms, and you will have to relate these to the three terms which are used in this context.

An indicative abstract attempts to direct a potential user to the publication and makes a statement about the content, but does not attempt to summarise or comment on the value of the intellectual or artistic content of the information resource.

An informative abstract attempts to summarise the principal arguments, and gives the principal data used in the book, periodical article etc. This approach is meant to inform an individual in summary form. Should you wish to gain access to the information resource which has been abstracted, it can be either purchased or borrowed through interlibrary loan and co-operation with other members of the information network.

An evaluative abstract goes one stage further than the informative abstract. The evaluative abstract attempts to place judgement on the intellectual content of the information resource and its place in the subject literature. To achieve this, the abstractor must have detailed subject knowledge of the topic. The abstractor must also have a thorough knowledge of the range and depth of the information resources relevant to that subject area. Therefore a person preparing evaluative abstracts must have a high reputation in the relevant subject field.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION FOUR (5.4)

1. List, describe and explain seven decisions which might be made in formulating guidelines for compiling a bibliography.

2. Define and explain the terms bibliographic style and level of citation.

3. List five reasons why annotations are included as part of a bibliography or a booklist.

4. Outline some of the problems the school librarian has to consider in compiling an information resource list.

5. List and describe three types of abstracts.

5.5 SERVICES FOR TEACHERS

The staff working in a school library provide many services to teachers. These services help the teacher to work more effectively and achieve the educational objectives of the school. The nature and extent of the services provided will differ from school to school. The reasons for this differing pattern may relate to:

(1) the size of the school and the number of students enrolled;
(2) the physical design, layout and amount of space in the school library;
(3) the number of items in the school library collection;
(4) the number of staff employed in the school library;
(5) the amount of time each staff member works in the school library each day when the school is in session.

Some of the services will be provided by the school librarian, and some by the school library assistant. Sometimes they will work together on a particular service, but whether they are working together or individually, it is the total service to the school's teachers and students which is important.

There are many services which the school librarian may offer in assisting the teacher use information resources with their teaching. These services may be to help the teacher develop further his/her knowledge in education or some other subject area. However, the most frequently provided services to teachers relate to providing information resources to support their classroom teaching. You may be able to think of such services from your own experience in schools, and you may recall some of the services mentioned in this and other Units of the course.

One service to teachers is information about new information resources added to the school library collection. A teacher will be asked to make suggestions for new items, which was considered in Section 4. Once new information resources arrive at the school library, it is important that they are processed quickly and made available for use by teachers and students. There are many ways that teachers can be informed of the availability of new information resources in the school library. These include:

(1) personal contact, either by face-to-face communication, by telephone, or some form of written communication. This contact will be to inform the teacher that an item requested for purchase for the school library collection is now available for use. Sometimes the contact will be to inform a teacher that a new item, or items, have been added to the school library which the teacher might be interested in using in teaching. These items may have been selected by the school librarian, another teacher or the school principal.

The use of this personal approach by the school librarian is an important strategy in developing effective teacher/librarian co-operation and professionalism.

(2) distribution of a published list describing the new information resources which have been added to the school library collection over a period of time. These lists will usually be distributed on a regular time basis such as each week, fortnight or month. The level of bibliographic description will vary as we have earlier discussed in compiling booklists, and may include a short annotation or abstract.

This is an impersonal way to pass on details about new information resources. However, in a large school, it may be the only way to ensure all teachers receive that information.

(3) display of new information resources in a central location which is used by all teachers in the school.

The location may be the school principal's office, the lunch room, the common room, or a special part of the school library.

Some school libraries offer a specialised service to teachers in relation to new issues of periodicals which arrive at the school library. Most school libraries will receive a number of periodicals on a regular basis. Some of the periodicals will be purchased, and some will be free and unsolicited. As you are aware each issue of a periodical contains a number of articles or chapters, all written by a number of people. Each person's intellectual or artistic responsibility will be listed on the contents page, but not included in the school library's catalogue except in special circumstances. The school librarian has a professional responsibility to bring relevant articles in new issues of periodicals to the attention of teachers. This can be done by the same strategies as we have already considered:

(1) personal contact;
(2) distribution of a list;
(3) display in an appropriate location.

Another strategy which may be used by the school librarian in relation to periodicals is the distribution of the contents page of each issue of a periodical. This is a common practice in other libraries. This approach requires a photocopying process, or you can retype the contents page for distribution. You may not have the financial resources in your school to purchase a photocopier and use it for this purpose. If you do not have access to this technology, personal contact with individual teachers can be just as effective. The most important task you as a school librarian have, is to make sure the information resourcer held in the school library are fully exploited and used to the maximum. Part of the work of a school librarian is to make sure all information contained in periodicals is readily available to teachers and students. This may mean that you include in the catalogue of the school library, an entry for an article in a periodical. If this is done, you must make sure the article is readily available in the same way as any other item included in the library's catalogue.

The bibliographical organisation of information contained in periodicals presents many problems to the school librarian. The major problem seems to be one of storage. To solve this, many school librarians will only keep the current issue of a periodical or a newspaper. Sometimes they may keep the back issues of a specific title for a particular period of time, such as the last month or the previous year. That decision will normally be made by the school librarian in conjunction with the teachers. Keeping only a few issues of a periodical, means that many issues must be discarded on a regular basis. Before throwing unwanted issues away, the school librarian will check each issue for relevant articles and pictures. These can then be cut out, and placed in the vertical file, so that the information is still available to the teacher.

The loan of information resources to teachers for use in the classroom is another service provided by the school library staff to the teacher. The resources may be:

(a) held in the school library;
(b) located in another library or information agency, and must be borrowed through the interlibrary loan network.

The teacher may be able to borrow a large number of information resources for use in the classroom for a fixed period of time. It may be for one teaching period, one morning, a day, a week or longer. The resources are usually on a particular theme or topic, and jointly chosen from the collection by the school librarian and the teacher. The way in which they are used in the classroom will depend on the teacher and the aims/objectives of his/her teaching programme. The length of time the resources are in the classroom will depend on the teacher's needs, and requests for the same items by other teachers and students.

As you are aware, the school library will not have all the information resources that a teacher may wish to use in teaching. The school library staff will try to borrow the requested item from another library or information agency. The items may be any of those discussed in Section 2. Often they will be the more expensive items to purchase such as 16mm films, multi-media kits, videotapes, models, dioramas and real objects. They will be borrowed for a specific period of time, and returned when finished with by the teacher and the students. The resources may come from another library, the museum, the art gallery, a government department, a film resource centre, or some other institutional resource. Some teachers may approach another library or information agency on an individual basis. However, if each teacher was to make individual contact with an individual library or information agency, each time an information resource was needed from an external source, then much time and effort is wasted and duplicated. It is better for the school library staff to co-ordinate the borrowing from external sources, as they will have the relevant bibliographic tools, the professional knowledge and expertise, and are already part of the information network.

Another service which the school librarian can offer to the teacher is assistance in course planning, setting of assignments, and curriculum development. Remember that the school librarian usually has professional qualifications in both teaching and librarianship. This dual qualification makes him/her a special person in the school environment, with detailed knowledge of the curriculum being used in the school, and a thorough knowledge of the information resources available to support that curriculum.

Any school will be constantly reviewing its curriculum, and in most cases attempting to relate its teaching to the local environment. In this constant approach to curriculum development, it is necessary to be aware of the range of information resources which are available and which can be used to support curriculum development within a school. As the school librarian usually has dual qualifications, he/she should be involved in any curriculum development activity associated with the school. When a school is involved in the development of its own curriculum, it is important to know the total range of resources which may be available for use in the curriculum. The range of resources should include relevant print and non-print resources, and other people and organisations in the community who can assist in achieving the aims and objectives of the curriculum. The school librarian should be aware of the range of these resources, and if not through personal knowledge, have the professional expertise to identify relevant resources. The school librarian should then be able to purchase or borrow these resources for use in the school. He/she will also be able to give information about local people and organisations who may be able to assist in curriculum development. Their involvement may be as:

(1) demonstrators of a particular skill such as basket making, or fishnet weaving;
(2) teachers who are involved due to their expertise and respect in the community, e.g. a highly respected boat builder;
(3) teachers who can pass on their special local language to the students;
(4) guest speakers who can pass on specialist knowledge, due to their position in the community, or their experience overseas.

You should be able to think of people who fit into the above categories in your own community. Within your own country, you may be able to think of how you could use these people in your curriculum development work. Perhaps you are able to think of other community resources which the school can use in developing its curriculum. Sometimes the involvement of these people and organisations may require the payment of a fee. However, this involvement is often undertaken on a free basis, as the person or organisation is glad to know that it is recognised and has a role to play in the community's education.

Another service which the school librarian should offer to teachers newly appointed to the school is an induction programme about the school library and its services. This should help the school librarian to develop a good professional working relationship with all teachers. Sometimes a new teacher may have come from another school where the level and quality of school library was more developed, and the newly appointed teacher may have some good suggestions to make to the school community about improving the school library. One area which is often developed in this way is for the school to produce its own information resources to support its own curriculum development work. The school librarian should be able to participate effectively in the design and production of school based information resources. The participation is vital, as the school librarian may be the only person who has the skills to operate, or supervise staff who can operate and use the hardware in the production process.

The school librarian therefore has a very important role in helping teachers to use and integrate information resources as part of their teaching.

That role should:

(1) bring to the attention of teachers, the range of information resources held in the school library;
(2) bring to the attention of the teachers and students the new items added to the school library's collection;
(3) advise the school staff of information resources available from other libraries and information agencies;

(4) advise the school staff of persons in the community whose specialist expertise the school can use;

(5) participate in the design of, and supervise the production of, school based information resources.

As a future school librarian on completion of your course, you have a special role to make sure that all the teachers in your school are aware of the total range of information resources available to achieve their curriculum aims and objectives. Where those resources do not exist in the required form, and a suitable level, the school librarian must be involved in overcoming that lack of suitable information resources.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION FIVE (5.5)

1. List five reasons which help explain why the nature and extent of services provided to teachers by the school library vary from school to school.

2. List, describe and explain three methods which may be used to inform teachers of new information resources which have been added to the school library.

3. Outline the various types of loan arrangements which the school library offers to teachers.

4. How can the school librarian help in school based curriculum development work?

5.6 SERVICES TO STUDENTS

The staff working in a school library provide many information services to students. Some of these services are exactly the same as those offered to the school principal and the teachers. However, some services are provided exclusively for the students. Often the provision of these student based services will require effective co-operation between the school librarian, the teachers and the school principal. The nature and extent of the services provided will vary from school to school. The reasons for this differing pattern may relate to:

(a) the size of the school and the number of students enrolled;
(b) the physical design, layout and amount of space in the school library;
(c) the number of items in the school library collection;
(d) the number of the staff employed in the school library;
(e) the amount of time each staff member works in the school library each day when the school is in session.

Some of the services will be provided by the school librarian, and some by the school library assistant. They are often helped by student volunteers, parents and other volunteers from the community. Sometimes, and hopefully often, the group of personnel working in a school library will work together as a team to provide a particular service. However, whether they are working together, or on an individual basis, it is the total service which is provided to the school's teachers and students which is important.

Services which the school library provides to the teachers, and which are equally important to the student can include:

(a) notification of new information resources which have been added to the school library collection;
(b) display of new information resources being added to the school library collection;

(c) involvement of students in the process of selection of new information resources to be included in the school library.

The above three areas are common to both teachers and students. We now need to identify what is unique for the school students.

The school library operates and functions as an integral part of the school's educational programme. The school library should provide service to students in three broad areas. These are:

(a) development of information skills for use in their total life;

(b) provision of information resources to support the student in his/her classroom studies;

(c) provision of information resources by the school librarian to help develop the student's information needs to support personal development and recreational needs. The nature of this work should be on an individual basis. The provision of resources at this level will vary from school to school, and will require the involvement of the school principal, the teachers, the school librarian, the school library staff, the students, and the philosophy of the education authority under whose jurisdiction the school comes.

We shall now examine each of these three broad areas.

Information Skills

These are skills which each student must acquire as part of their education, as they are needed throughout an individual's life. They are as important as learning the skills to read and write. Some people use the term as an all embracing one, as learning to read and write is part of the development of information skills. Remember some students will leave school without the skills to read and write. Therefore it is important that they learn how to ask for information, and the type of people and information agencies to which they may turn for help. We have learned of terms such as information age, information explosion, information industry and information overload. You may be able to think of other terms. It is therefore important that while students are at school, they learn the appropriate skills to cope with information and society.

There are many strategies in providing a structure for these information skills which are essential for life long living. You may already know of some of these from your studies in education. Initially we shall divide these information skills into three broad areas:

(a) Thinking skills;
(b) Learning skills through using information;
(c) Communicating skills.

Each one of these areas can be further subdivided into highly specialised skills, dependent on the age of the student, the educational background of the students, and the school curriculum. Some skills may be given higher priority by some teachers than others. However, it is necessary that the skills are taught as part of the total curriculum, rather than in an isolated situation. It is therefore essential that the programme to teach information skills is a co-ordinated and co-operative undertaking involving the school librarian and the teachers.

We shall now divide thinking, learning and communicating skills into eleven areas. These eleven areas relate to the following:

(1) Skills in using equipment (hardware);
(2) Skills in using and caring for books and audiovisual resources (software);
(3) Problem formation;
(4) Sources to which students may turn to solve problems;
(3) Accessing information resources;

(6) Asking for help when they cannot solve their own information problems;
(7) Development, extension and reinforcement in reading, viewing and listening skills;
(8) Skills in selecting the most appropriate resource format to help solve their information needs;
(9) Selection, evaluation, discrimination and interpretation of information;
(10) Repackaging of information;
(11) Organising and using/retrieving information from their own information files.

We shall now examine each of the eleven areas. Remember all cannot be taught in the first year in which a student attends school. They will be taught at relevant times, and the skills will be introduced, reinforced and extended during a student's total school education experience. Some of the skills may also be developed in the other places in which learning may take place. They are with the home and family, the community, the peer group and other information agencies besides the school library.

1. Skills in Using Equipment (Hardware)

In the information age of the 1980's, technology has allowed the information industry to make information available in a wide range of formats other than print. Some of those non-print resources are microform, gramophone records, sound tapes, filmstrips, videotape, videodiscs etc.

You may recall other non-print resources from Unit Two, Section Two: Information Resources. Most of these non-print resources require the use of a piece of hardware or equipment in order to retrieve the information stored in the software.

It is therefore necessary for the school librarian, the school library staff and the teachers to acquire the necessary skills to operate and maintain any equipment held in the school. It is also necessary that students be taught how to operate and how to care for relevant items of equipment. Some students may learn these skills from the home and family, or within the community. Children often, learn these basic operational skills in the home environment, and they are reinforced and extended in the school environment. Children are usually very anxious to use equipment and do not express the same reluctance to use equipment as is found in many adults. In addition to operating equipment, it is also important students learn to care for the equipment, and also carry out basic preventative maintenance. Examples of equipment which students should become competent in using are:

(a) radio;
(b) reel to reel tape recorders;
(c) cassette recorder/players;
(d) television monitors;
(e) videocassette recorders;
(f) film viewing projectors;
(g) photocopiers;
(h) computer keyboards.

You may be able to think of other examples of equipment in relation to your country. The teaching strategies to teach the equipment competencies will be a result of a combined and co-ordinated approach by the school librarian and the teachers.

2. Skills in Information Resource Use

Any person using information resources must know how to care for those information resources, otherwise they will deteriorate and no longer be of any value to other people. The concept of skills in this area is more an awareness of looking after, rather than abusing, information resources. This awareness can be divided into two broad areas:

(a) physical handling procedures;
(b) climatic conditions in which information resources are placed or stored.

Many of these are minor, but if all are carried out in a sensible manner, the information resources are preserved and available for the use of other teachers and students in the school library. The development of these care attitudes can also be transmitted to a student's own personal information resources, and resources from other information agencies.

Examples of these simple caring procedures include:

(a) do not turn down the page corner in a book to mark your place before you shut the book, use a bookmark;
(b) do not leave books in a place where the sun might cause the plastic cover to melt or buckle;
(c) do not leave a cassette which is plastic in the sun, or it might melt, and then cannot be made to fit into the cassette player/recorder;
(d) take care in handling 35mm slides, and do not put fingerprints on the film, as they can destroy the photographic image;
(e) make sure that information resources such as 16mm film are placed back in their containers after use, and that they are cleaned on a regular basis.

You will know of many other ways in which information resources should be cared for, and you will be able to pass these on to teachers and students. The most important thing to be passed on to students is a positive and caring attitude towards the use and preservation of information resources.

3. Problem Formation

The initial point is to identify that the student has an information problem. This is a difficult concept to establish with students, as they are often unable to identify that they have a problem or issue which they wish to have resolved; whether the problem is based in a personal or a school situation. Due to a different frame of reference, the school librarian, the teacher and the student may have difficulty in identifying the student's information problem.

Most students will have an information need in relation to their studies. It is necessary to educate students to verbalise and to express on paper, just what their information needs are. This is a hard task, but one which is highly necessary if the flow of information is to be effective. It is important to teach problem analysis, and to encourage a high degree of specificity in their requests. This is really like problems which you have encountered in Reference Works, the Reference Collection and Compiling Information Resource Lists. You will have to work directly with teachers in developing learning strategies which will help students develop their statements of problems with a high degree of specifity.

4. Information Sources and Agencies

As part of every student's education, they must become aware of the range of information sources and agencies to which they may turn for assistance in relation to their life. You will recall from Unit Two: Section Five, the range of agencies involved in the provision of information. The school student should be made aware of the existence of these agencies, and their place in the total information network. The student should understand that they can use these information agencies, as they try to solve problems and answer questions. They should be made aware of the role and function of national, public, special and academic libraries. They should also be aware of the role and function of resource centres, cultural centres, museums, art galleries, archives repositories, tourist bureaus, government agencies and other organisations involved in the information industry. You should be able to identify relevant information agencies of your country to which students should be introduced.

As the school librarian, you should ensure that as part of the curriculum, students are made aware of the existence of the total range of the information agencies in the community. They should also be aware of the services provided by these information agencies, and what rights an individual has to request advice and the manner in which the requests are made. You will need to identify strategies whereby students become aware of the nature of, and services offered by these information agencies. Using the services of these information agencies should be a relevant component of the school curriculum.

5. Accessing Information Resources

These are basic skills which all students must learn as part of their education. These skills can be divided into:

(a) accessing an information resource placed before a student;
(b) using bibliographic control mechanisms e.g. school library catalogue, to identify relevant information resources held in the school library;
(c) using published indexes, abstracts, lists, and catalogues to access information resources held in the school library, and in other relevant information agencies.

To access information resources in this manner, students need to be competent in:

(a) numeracy;
(b) alphabetisation;
(c) bibliographic description.

You will realise to achieve at this level, the school librarian and the teachers need to organise a set of relevant structured learning experiences to develop information skills. These learning experiences need to demonstrate that the information identified and located has a high degree of relevancy to a particular problem for the students. Such a strategy can easily be designed. Once students begin to have a good success rate in accessing information resources, the benefits of the structured learning experience programme will become apparent. The teaching of these information skills can be difficult, and many of the students will require personal assistance to achieve the required degree of competency.

6. Asking for Help

You as a school librarian know that you must co-operate with fellow information workers and teachers. No person, no matter how qualified or how experienced, can exist without the help of other colleagues. You will be able to understand this in relation to your own situation. It is important to develop an attitude which allows a professional person to work as a member of a team, and that means asking others for help when your knowledge is poor or deficient. There is no shame in this at any level, and you need to make sure that all school students develop this attitude of asking for help. There are many reasons why students ask for help. Some of these reasons include:

(a) have no idea how to solve their information problem;
(b) are unable to articulate clearly just what information is required;

(c) do not understand skills needed to access the required information;

(d) realise that the school librarian has specialist education in information work, and has experience in helping school students identify and solve their information needs.

It is therefore important that the information skills programme has a component which allows the school librarian to solve students' information problems, and emphasises there is no shame in asking for help.

7. Development, Extension and Reinforcement in Reading, Viewing and Listening Skills

The school librarian should be supportive in this area, rather than attempting to assume the total responsibility. Much of this work would be done on a small group or individual basis as the need arises, particularly in the area of extension and reinforcement. The school librarian is not responsible for teaching students to read, as that is the role of the classroom teacher. However, the school librarian can assist by telling stories, listening to students read aloud, providing interesting reading materials to encourage students to read etc. You may be able to think of ways in which the school library can participate in the development, extension and reinforcement of skills in reading.

A similar situation exists with viewing and listening skills. The classroom teacher is responsible for their development, but the school librarian can be involved in the extension and reinforcement stages. Sometimes the classroom teacher and the school librarian work together to design a programme aimed at developing viewing and listening skills using the information resources held in the school library. You will be able to think of other ways in which the school library can be involved.

8. Skills in Appropriate Resource Format Selection

You will be aware from your studies that not every member of the community has the skills to read and write. For this reason, the oral tradition in many communities is more relevant and important than printed information resources such as books and periodicals. To this extent, some people will be able to communicate better through the spoken word, through the pictorial approach, or even sign language.

Students should be introduced to the process of communication early in their education. Their understanding of the communication process can be further extended and developed as the student progresses through his/her school career. It is important that students become highly competent in their understanding of the characteristics of the recorded formats in which information is stored, and that they can critically evaluate each in relation to answering their questions and problems. School students must be able to decide which is the most appropriate resource to meet their information needs. Teaching this is difficult, and needs to be a co-ordinated and combined effort of the school librarian and the classroom teacher.

9. Selection, Evaluation, Discrimination and Interpretation of Information

The achievement of the successful application of these skills is a difficult task for any member of the community. Many factors influence this achievement, and on many occasions, two people may not agree with decisions made in relation to selection, evaluation, discrimination and interpretation of information. It is possible to introduce these concepts at an early age, but the major thrust of this work is best achieved in the later primary years, and in the secondary grades of school.

The selection of information can only be undertaken after a student has undergone the process of problem formation.

This is similar to the process of the school librarian selecting information resources for inclusion in the school library collection. You will remember some of the problems likely to be encountered from Selection of Resources in Unit Four. One of the problems will be in deciding which is the most appropriate information resource format to solve the information need. Sometimes the best solution is to use a numberof types of information resources.

The evaluation of the worth of an information resource can be a subjective decision based on an individual's point of view or frame of reference. An individual's point of view can be moral, religious, political, national or some other, and this can influence their evaluation of an information resource which does not agree with their point of view. Often the school has the teaching of the concept of tolerance as one of its aims, and therefore the development of an understanding of objectivity in using information resources should be part of the school curriculum. A student's personal preference for a particular format in an information resource e.g. highly illustrated text or easy words can also lead to a subjective judgement being given. Other areas which need to be considered include:

(a) level and clarity of written or verbal expression used to express the intellectual content of the information resource;
(b) subject level of the intellectual content in relation to the comprehension of the content;
(c) accuracy of the information contained in an information resource;
(d) time scale and the currency of the information included in the information resource;
(e) supporting statements such as illustrations in a book, or the script for a tape-slide sequence;
(f) authority of the person or persons responsible for the intellectual and artistic content of an information resource.

You may be able to think of other areas which you may wish to consider in assessing an information resource.

Once a student has developed an accepted level or degree of competency in assessing an information resource, it is important that those competencies be applied to a range of information resources on the same topic or subject. Students must learn to discriminate whilst using a range of information resources, and the development of this approach should be part of the school curriculum.

The interpretation of the content of an information resource is an ability which every school student should develop. In addition to discriminating when using an information resource, students must learn to interpret information. Often this approach is only thoroughly developed in the later years of secondary school, even though the approach has been introduced much earlier in a student's education. The aspect of attempting to interpret information relates to many types of information resource. These include maps, statistics and reports. It is necessary that the skills be developed in relation to subject content in areas such as geography, environmental studies, mathematics and science. It is also important that students in their own information use, question the process of information collection, presentation and analysis. You may consider these skills to be for those people working in universities and those who undertake research, but every person in a community needs to be able to interpret information, whether it be:

(a) articles in a newspaper;
(b) advertising about a product in a periodical or magazine;
(c) advertising within a radio broadcast, or a television screening;
(d) a tourist brochure;
(e) a social welfare document, outlining a person's rights and entitlements.

They must be able to question the manner in which the information has been collected, organised and presented. They must also be able to accept or reject that information, and be able to give their reasons for the acceptance or the rejection of that information.

10. Repackaging of Information

Students must learn to present information to their peers, teachers and parents. This comes as a result of using their skills in the selection, evaluation, discrimination and interpretation of information. When presenting assignments or projects, students will have used a number of information resources, and have had to assimilate ideas and concepts. In this repackaging of information, students should be encouraged to use a variety of communication techniques, including the written word, the pictorial approach, diagrams, maps, slides, sound, film, video, etc. You may be able to think of other techniques.

Students should be taught how to present information using these techniques, and encouraged to present their assignment work in a variety of formats. Suitable approaches may be a set of drawings accompanied by a page of text, a tape-slide sequence or maybe a videotape. Remember that two pages of writing copied from a book or an encyclopaedia, and stapled together in the top left hand corner, is not always the most effective method of repackaging information.

11. Using Their Own Information Files

As part of their daily lives, and particularly in relation to their school studies, students gather, and are presented with, a range of information. Some of this may be handouts compiled and distributed by teachers; some of it may be print resources, obtained free or purchased by students, or perhaps photocopies of resources; and much of it may be notes which students have made themselves. Students must learn the skills of organising their own information in order to maximise their effort of information gathering.

These skills to be taught include:

(a) organisation of information in a logical manner;
(b) process of organisation using alphabetical sequences and classified sequences, and relevant strategies which can be used;
(c) development of adequate note taking styles;
(d) development of adequate referencing styles, in order that information resources can be adequately identified by teachers;
(e) development of the compilation of information resource lists or bibliography styles.

You may be able to identify other areas which you think are important in developing information organisation skills in students. Many of these skills can be introduced in the primary school, but are best extended, and further developed in the secondary school. You will have to decide how and when the teaching of the skills is to be introduced. You, in conjunction, with the classroom teacher and the school principal, will have to decide upon a total school based programme for the teaching of all these eleven areas relating to information skills.

We have now examined the range of eleven broad areas of information skills in which the school librarian must participate in relation to the total school curriculum. The school librarian is able to offer this service, as he/she will hold qualifications in library studies and education. Some people will use terms such as learning skills and library skills. We have already decided that these terms form part of a broader term with which you are familiar; that term being information skills.

We must now break down the eleven broad areas of information skills into more specific tasks which can be achieved as a student progresses through the school system. Some of these tasks are easily achieved; some early in a student's education, some at a later stage, and some students will leave school with only a limited number of these skills. Many people advocate an information skills development strategy known as a *K-12* approach, with K meaning the pre-school period and 1-12 being the twelve grades a student passes, if he/she satisfactorily completes the full primary/secondary schooling. You will know in your own country just how far students progress in this K-12 approach. You will then realise that for the education system of which you are a part, the school principal, the teachers and the school librarian will need to develop their own programme of information kills to meet the individual needs and differences of the students.

This is *one* programme which you should *consider*, and *possibly modify* to meet the needs of your school.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
K-2	1. Use picture clues to aid in understanding information resources. 2. Identify main idea or concept in an information resource. 3. Identify and explain a sequence of events.
3	4. Find specific information by using pictorial material and photographs. 5. Interpret simple pictorial maps, graphs and diagrams. 6. Skim printed information resources to find a word, name, date, phrase, sentence, idea, usually in order to answer a question and solve a problem.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
4	7. Use the table of contents of an information resource, particularly a book or an issue of a periodical to locate information.
	8. Use a specified information resource to locate a specific fact.
	9. Summarise, and discuss verbally, simple information.
	10. Use the index of an information resource to locate information.
	11. Locate words in a dictionary, and explain nature of information given.
	12. Identify kew words and phrases in a reference source suitable for use by children.
5-6	13. Use encyclopaedias, atlases, dictionaries suitable for children with a higher degree of effectiveness.
	14. Use telephone directories with a limited degree of success.
	15. Write a simple outline to help solve an information or personal problem.
	16. Prepare a simple information resource list of three or more items.
	17. Take notes from appropriate information resources, particularly those of a printed nature.
7-8	18. Summarise content of information resources in student's own style of expression.
	19. Use bibliographies, periodical indexes, and other listings to assist in locating information.
	20. Use skim reading techniques to gain an overview of an information resource.

Grade Levels	Intended Learning Outcomes
7-8 cont'd	21. Compile an information resource list of a limited number of items following a specified style.
	22. Take notes using a prescribed pattern or procedures.
	23. Outline information in a topic or sentence pattern in a structured and logical sequence.
	24. Identify key points in content of an information resource.
9-12	25. Compare figures in maps, graphs, statistical tables etc. to make generalisations to infer and to draw conclusions.
	26. Use effectively the preface, chapter headings, indexes and cross references in an information resource particularly in relation to the selection and discrimination process.
	27. Evaluate information resources for accuracy and appropriateness.
	28. Recognise digressions from the main ideas in an information resource.
	29. Justify the selection of relevant information to meet an expressed need from specified content of specific information resources.
	30. Develop skim reading techniques to a high degree of competency.
	31. Distinguish between factual and emotional writing; and fact and opinion.
	32. Identify and explain unsubstantiated statements in information resources.
	33. Use formal outlining techniques to organise information gathered to assist in recall.

This is only one suggested scheme. You will realise that this suggested scheme is more oriented to printed resources. You will need to decide how relevant this scheme is to your own situation, and modify it to meet the curriculum as taught in your school, and as recommended by the relevant education authority. You will also have to decide how to expand such a scheme to include skills in relation to non-print resources. A strategy to develop all the relevant information skills will be developed at a school based level, and therefore the pattern should differ from school to school, and sometimes from education system to education system.

We identified three broad areas in which the school library should provide service. In addition to development of information skills for use in their total life we identified:

(i) provision of information resources to support the student in his/her classroom studies;

(ii) provision of information resources by the school librarian to help develop the student's information needs to support personal development and recreational needs.

You will recall from Unit Four, the rationale for the provision of such information resources, and you will study the techniques of provision of such information resources in Unit Six: The School Library - Organisation and Management.

We shall not consider the strategies involved in the provision of these resources in the school library environment. However, we shall now consider how the information skills and how the information resources can be used to achieve the school's aims and objectives. There are many approaches which can be used by the school to achieve these objectives. You will have to decide what these aims and objectives will be in relation to your school, and then decide which approaches you as a school librarian may use.

Some approaches which are used, include students operating on:

(a) an individual basis;
(b) a small group basis;
(c) a class basis under supervision of the classroom teacher and the school library staff.

Each of these approahces is valid, and to achieve the aims and objectives of the programme all three approaches can be used. Sometimes the term, library lesson, is used, however, many people disapprove of this term, as it implies that lessons in the library are conducted in isolation, rather than being integrated as part of the other subjects which are taught within the school curriculum. We shall now examine each of the three approaches.

The school library can cater for students on an individual basis. This means that the student and the school librarian are co-operating on a one-to-one basis. This means that the school librarian is able to offer special encouragement to students who have special needs. These special needs may be in relation to the development and improvement of reading, viewing and listening skills, particular information needs, or using information skills to locate specific information. In the school library students can work on their own, at their own pace and at their own level of subject knowledge or familiarity. The guidance for this individualised pattern can come from the school librarian or the teacher, or both. The school library is one part of the school which caters for individual differences, and therefore allows for independent study and personal growth. The school librarian is able to operate in this manner, as he/she has specialist knowledge of information resources in a wide range of subjects, and knowledge of learning patterns, as he/she also has qualifications in education.

Students working in a group of up to ten can be catered for on a special basis by the school library. The use of the school library by small groups of students needs careful planning by the school librarian in conjunction with classroom teachers. There are several reasons for this need for careful planning. These include:

(a) ability of the school librarian to house and seat the small group in relation to seating capacity of the school library at specific times;
(b) ability of the school librarian to supervise a small group, or a number of small groups at specific times.

Whilst the school librarian may have the ability to cope with a larger number of students at any point in time, constraints are imposed by the size of the physical facilities of the library and the number of students which can be accommodated during a formal school period, at recess or at lunchtime. If such things happen, this is a good sign of awareness of the place and potential use of the school library.

The school librarian can adopt a number of methods to overcome the situation of having to say sorry when teachers and students wish to use the school library and its resources. The methods can include:

(a) arranging the furniture and seating in the library flexibly so that it can be used for small group situations, and/or a large class, as well as catering for the needs of individual students;
(b) organising a timetable or booking schedule for group and class use of the school library;
(c) arranging to take relevant information resources to the classroom for students to use, particularly when the school library is fully booked. This particular method helps overcome the development of negative attitudes towards the school library by the school students and the teachers.

The school librarian will need to work closely with classroom teachers to maximise the use of the information resources held in the school library, and those available within the wider community. On many occasions, when the school librarian works in the classroom, the purpose is to create awareness of, and stimulate the use of information resources. This can be in relation to curriculum based needs, recreational needs or just to promote the use of information resources, particularly reading for pleasure. This can be achieved by working with small groups of students in either the classroom or the school library. However, due to time and physical restraints, it may be more appropriate for the school librarian to work with the total class.

When working with a total class of students, the school librarian must be aware of the aims and objectives of the period or lesson; the place of the particular lesson in the sequence on the topic, and the range of abilities of the students in the clasc. It is important that any work undertaken in a class situation by the school librarian be integrated with classroom activities, rather than just being an isolated lesson and not linked to the student's learning experience. In a classroom situation, the school librarian can:

(a) introduce the range of information resources which students can use when beginning a topic or theme in a particular subject;

(b) introduce new information skills as earlier discussed, and in relation to a particular topic;

(c) reinforce and consolidate information skills previously introduced to students;

(d) read or tell a story as part of a programme to stimulate students to read for pleasure and enjoyment.

You may be able to think of other approaches or reasons why the school librarian works with classes. One of these reasons may be to test the level of competency students have achieved in a particular information skill or group of information skills. After assessment of the testing, the teacher and the school librarian can then undertake remedial teaching on either an individual basis, a group basis or a total class basis. This strategy helps the student to overcome and solve identifiable problems in relation to information skills and the use of information resources. Such remedial action needs to be highly structured and closely co-ordinated with the school curriculum.

You may be able to think of various methods which can be used in relation to your own education system and your own country. The pattern which you may develop will influence the approach you adopt in the selection of information resources for use in the classroom, and for the school library as a whole. Some of these other approaches will be discussed in Extension Services and Special Activities.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will need to re-read the course booklet, and attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION SIX (5.6)

1. List the five reasons why services to students by the school library may vary from school to school.

2. List at least three services which the school library provides to both teachers and students.

3. Define and explain the term information skills.

4. List eleven broad areas into which thinking, learning and communicating skills can be divided.

5. Define the concept K-12 as it may apply to the teaching of information skills in secondary schools.

6. List, describe and explain three approaches which the school librarian can use to help students become competent in using information resources.

5.7 EXTENSION SERVICES

The term *extension services* is one which when applied to library and information work has a special meaning. Most library and information agencies attempt to bring to the attention of their intended audience, the range of services they have to offer to that audience. As you may realise many people in the community are totally ignorant of the range of library and information agencies operating in the community, and their region. They will therefore be totally ignorant of the services offered by each of these library and information agencies. To help overcome this problem of lack of knowledge and ignorance, many library and information agencies organise *extension services or activities*.

The pattern of *extension services* will vary within library and information agencies according to the aims and objectives of each agency. Often where a library or information agency has a large, undefined and dispersed potential audience, involvement in extension work may become a major thrust of that agency. As the *school library* has a clearly defined audience, in that it can clearly identify the number of students and teachers in a school, the *school library* is often not involved in *extension services*. However, the *school library* and the *school* in general are involved in directly providing information services to the community of which it is part. This may be termed an *extension service*. Where the school library also assumes the functions of the public library, it is known as a *community library*, and therefore should be actively involved in extension work. One agency usually involved in a wide range of *extension services* is the *public library*. You will understand the public library situation in your own country, and should be able to list and describe the extension activities of that public library service.

The pattern of extension work undertaken by a *public library* will vary from one environment to another. The reasons for the differing patterns will include:

(1) the level of provision of the public library service;
(2) the amount of funding available to support the public library service;
(3) the quality of staffing and the range of the information resources available;
(4) the priorities as determined by the governing authority of the public library.

You may be able to think of additional reasons which might affect the nature of extension work in public libraries in your country and region.

Throughout the world, public libraries are involved in a wide range of activities which help to promote the use of the public library, its services and resources. The range of activities will be varied and may include some of the following:

(1) activities designed to attract children to the public library. These activities may include -

    (a) storytelling sessions;
    (b) creative sessions such as painting, basket making or some other local activity applicable to children in your country or region,
    (c) reading sessions,
    (d) film screenings,
    (e) competitions, for which prizes are given,
    (f) story writing classes,
    (g) classes designed to teach particular skills such as making puppets,
    (h) guest speakers such as a children's book author, or an illustrator,
    (i) exhibitions of children's craft work, or any other items which may be of interest to children and young adults.

(2) activities designed to attract adults to the public library. These activities may be of the same type as for children, but at a different level of intellectual content. The public library may offer some special services of value to adults only, and these might include:

- (a) teaching people to read and write in their own language;
- (b) teaching people to speak, read and write another language, whether it be a local or national language, or an international language such as English or French;
- (c) production of information resources at a local level and in a local language such as a daily newssheet, or a weekly newspaper;
- (d) specialist classes to improve the knowledge of the adults in such areas as health, child care, agriculture and housing.

(3) activities designed to attract the total family. These activities may be a combination of those listed for children and/or adults, or they may be something special to appeal to the whole family. This type of activity usually provides an entertainment function for the community which the public library serves. Such activities may include:

- (a) film screenings;
- (b) performances by visiting artists such as a group of magicians, a theatrical company, dance troupe or some other cultural group;
- (c) feast days and carnivals;
- (d) reading aloud days.

You may be able to think of other family based extension activities offered by the public library.

The extension services may be conducted at the public library, or the staff of the public library may travel throughout the region to meet children and adults. This type of work is often called outreach services. There are many reasons why the staff may travel away from the public library. These include:

(1) to inform the people about the work of the public library and the services offered;
(2) to overcome problems of difficulty of access to the central library, particularly for those people living in the rural areas, or in island areas;
(3) to provide service to people who may be sick, housebound, etc. and who cannot travel to the library.

Sometimes it may be easier for one public library worker to visit one location and work with a group of mothers and their children, rather than them all coming to the public library. You should be able to think of the reasons for this approach. The public library may offer services to people in prison, in hospitals, in a home or some other type of institution.

To offer these extension services, the library staff will have to travel. The method may include a vehicle such as a truck or van, a sea-going craft such as a boat or a canoe, an aircraft, or some other relevant transport system. The level of provision may be limited due to finance and the availability of library staff to travel. Where this happens, information resources particularly books, may be sent to particular individuals through the post or some other courier delivery system.

The school library if community based, may offer a range of extension activities to the children and adults who live in the area around the school. If the school library is only able to offer a service to the teachers and students of the school, it may co-operate with the public library, and participate in thatlibrary's extension services.

There are many ways in which this co-operation may take place. These may include:

(1) the school as a location for public library extension services;
(2) promotional work undertaken by the school library to support the work of the public library;
(3) the school library as a depot for the lending of information resources from the collection of the public library.

This co-operation may involve other information agencies, and you may be able to think of other examples where the school and its library, the public library and other agencies are jointly involved in extension work.

Some of the areas where this joint involvement may take place are literacy, health, nutrition, housing and agriculture. The pattern of activity will vary from area to area, depending on local needs and the degree of involvement by the relevant information agencies. These information agencies may be government sponsored, church sponsored or privately sponsored by a club or organisation. You should be able to prepare a list of such information agencies for your region, and how they may be able to participate with the school library and information service.

Within an area served by a school, there are many groups that the school can involve in its activities. One group is the parents, and in some schools, there are mothers' groups and fathers' groups. These groups may be organised to help the school achieve its aims and objectives. There are numerous ways in which these parental groups may be involved, usually on a voluntary basis. One way in which some mothers may be involved, is as volunteers in the school library. In return for participation in the school on a voluntary basis, the school may arrange a programme of extension activities. These may be designed for:

(1) pre-school children;
(2) school leavers who do not have a job;
(3) parents who wish to contribute or extend their education;
(4) older people who may wish to be involved in recreation pastimes.

These extension activities which are arranged by the school are for both educational and recreational purposes. The school library has a direct role to play in these activities. The school librarian should be directly involved in the planning of any such activities and should make sure that he/she is a member of the planning committee. The range of activities which can be offered may include all, or a selection of those given as possibilities for the public library.

The school will have to decide if it is to be involved in community based extension activities. In some schools, there may be a highly organised and successful extension programme. In some schools, there may be nothing. If you are appointed to a school as a school librarian, and there is no extension programme, you should consider the development of such a programme, and involve other information agencies including the public library.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION SEVEN (5.7)

1. What is meant by the term extension services or activities in relation to school and public libraries?

2. Describe ten of the components which may be included in an extension service operated in a school or public library.

3. List, and explain five locations where the public library may conduct extension activities or services.

4. List four ways in which the school library and the public library can co-operate.

5.7 SPECIAL ACTIVITIES

The term special activities in relation to the school library means that the school library will decide to participate in a range of promotional events which are not part of its normal activities. You might think of them as extension activities, and some people will say that they are extension activities However, as they may only happen once a school term or a school year, they are a different type of activity, and therefore are termed special. Their purpose is still the same as an extension activity, in that they attempt to bring to the attention of the public at large the work undertaken by library and information agencies; the range of information resources available and the information services offered to the public.

What are these special activities in which the school library may participate? They nay be divided into:

(1) activities generated by the school, such as the school's foundation day, or the retirement of a highly respected teacher or school principal;

(2) activities of a specialist nature generated by the community of which the school is part. Examples may be the local show, a religious event, a celebration in relation to a change in the seasons, a wedding, or some other special event. You should be able to think of other examples of special community events in which the school and its library might be involved;

(3) activities organised at the national level; organised by the government, or some other national agency or professional association. Examples of such activities may be related to the country's national independence day, the country's national book week, or national education week;

(4) activities organised at the regional or international level, which may include World Environment Day, Red Cross Day, or some other special event in relation to your country. You should be able to identify these in relation to your own country.

Sometimes these special activities will be organised to promote a concept, subject or philosophical strategy, and examples of this may be:

(a) "Read a book today";
(b) National education week;
(c) Better goat breeding month;
(d) Nutrition week;
(e) Family planning strategies for the 1980s.

These special activities will not have been designed by the school or its library. However, the school principal, the student body, teachers or the school librarian may wish to participate in one of these special activities. Often the decision to become involved is a joint one undertaken by all students and education personnel in the school.

How can the school and the school library become involved in these special activities?

(1) the school librarian may decide to take the initiative, and organise participation with the help of the school principal, the teachers and the students;
(2) the school librarian may respond to requests from within the school. For example, the mathematics teaching staff may request help from the school library staff in participating in National Mathematics Week in their own school;
(3) the professional library organisation may request participation in their National Library Week; and the school and its library may decide to become involved;

(4) the school may receive a directive from Education Headquarters, or some other government agency that the school is to participate in some special activity of government significance.

Regardless of whether the school library initiates the participation, or whether it is suggested by another person, or agency; the school library has a number of strategies which can be used to demonstrate effective participation. These include:

(1) display of items held in the school library which may support the particular theme or approach. Such a display should reflect the range of resources held in the school library;
(2) compilation and distribution of lists and bibliographies of the holdings of the school library in relation to the particular theme related to the special activity;
(3) distribution of lists, bibliographies and other relevant literature produced by an external information agency;
(4) compilation and distribution of a guide or finding list to the holdings and services offered by other information agencies in relation to the particular theme;
(5) development of a special programme of activities and events by the school library to support the educational aims and objectives of the particular programme in question. This special programme will be co-ordinated by the school librarian in relation to the total programme.

When the school library becomes involved in one of these promotional activities, it usually means that there is a degree of acceptance of the aims and objectives of the total programme. If the involvement has been generated by the school library, it is often referred to as active involvement. Sometimes when involvement has been directed on the school library, and school library staff must be involved, the term passive is often used. Whether the level of participation is active or passive, the staff of the school library must ensure their participation is effective, and that they assist in the achievement of the aims and objectives of the special activity. If their participation can be described as ineffective, school library staff will be helping teachers and students to develop a negative attitude about the school library, its staff, its resources and its services.

One example of a special activity in which libraries and other information agencies participate is National Library Week. Fiji held its third National Library Week during the period, 25 July to 1 August, 1981. We shall use this as an example to demonstrate how such a special activity is organised, and what can happen in one of these activities.

The National Library Week was organised by a Council. Membership of that Council comprised representatives from:

(1) Library Service of Fiji;
(2) Suva City Library;
(3) Curriculum Development Unit, Fiji Ministry of Education;
(4) University of the South Pacific Library;
(5) Fiji Library Association.

The Council organised a range of activities to bring to the attention of the public the aims and objectives of National Library Week. The range of activities were designed with particular emphasis on children and young adults. The activities arranged by the Council were divided into two groups. They were:

(1) activities organised at the national level;
(2) activities organised at the library level, in conjunction with the Council.

Some of the activities organised at the national level included:

- (a) a poster competition for primary and secondary school students;
- (b) a slogan competition to decide the best heading for the week. The winning slogan was "Read more: Know more."
- (c) supplements about National Library Week in the newspapers *Fiji Sun* and *Fiji Times;*
- (d) radio broadcasts on Radio Fiji involving
  - (i) book reviews about or written in the Pacific;
  - (ii) interviews with library workers and broadcasts in the Fijian and English languages:
- (e) a National Library Quiz.

Examples of participation by libraries at the local level include:

- (a) Sigatoka Town Council Library
  essay competition for primary and secondary school students;
- (b) Suva City Library
  - (i) storytelling sessions in English, Hindi and Fijian;
  - (ii) character parade through the streets in which children dressed as characters from their favourite books
  - (iii) competitions in painting, apple eating and book stacking;
  - (iv) meeting of the Friends of the Suva City Library.
- (c) Western Regional Library, Lautoka
  - (i) showing of films;
  - (ii) guess the title of a book;
  - (iii) visits by primary school children to the library;

(iv) display of art works by members of the community.

(d) Labasa Town Council Library

(i) storytelling;

(ii) community oriented activities;

(e) Nadi Town Council Library

(i) book marker contest;

(ii) seminar on the role of the library in the community.

How were people, in particular children, encouraged to participate? This approach can be divided into:

(a) professional librarians, and other members of the community who are committed to the library movement, and its growth and development;

(b) members of the community attracted by the publicity and promotion given through the newspapers, radio, posters and competitions. One of the attractions, particularly for children and young adults is the opportunity to win a prize.

One feature of National Library Week held in Fiji during the period 25 July to 1 August, 1981 was the co-operation with shops, business houses and government organisations who were prepared to donate prizes for participation and involvement.

If you would like to know more about the Third National Library Week held in Fiji, 1981 you can consult the following article:

> *D. Simmons. Third national library week in Fiji Library Association. Journal No. 6. December, 1981, pp. 26-35.*

Perhaps you have such an activity in your country. If you do not, you may be able to organise, or participate in the organisation of such an activity in your own country.

Special activities are usually related to a particular theme as has been discussed in the Third National Library Week held in Fiji in 1981. Many of the items included in the activity week may also be considered as part of an extension programme. You may be able to use the activities discussed above in your extension activity programme, or as part of a special activity programme. All these activities are designed to help the library meet its general aims and objectives. In relation to the school library, you should be able to list and explain those aims and objectives.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet, and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION EIGHT (5.8)

1. Define the term special activities as it relates to the school library.

2. List and describe the four broad types of special activity in which the school library may participate.

3. How does the school and the school library become involved in these special activities?

4. List and describe five strategies or approaches which the school library can use when involved in special activities. Give examples where appropriate.

COURSE II

UNIT VI - The School Library - Organisation and Management

INTRODUCTION

This unit THE SCHOOL LIBRARY - ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT aims to assist the student to develop his/her perception of the role and functions of the school library and the role and task of the school librarian. The unit also aims to develop in students, competencies which will allow them to develop, organise and manage school library and information service which makes an effective contribution to the achievement of the school's educational aims and objectives. The unit is divided into a preface and six sections. The six sections are as follows:

1. Physical facilities;
2. Acquisition of information resources;
3. Organisation of information resources;
4. Circulation of information resources;
5. Library operational procedures;
6. Library promotional activities.

Some of the topics covered in this unit may have been discussed in the other units of the course. Their inclusion in this unit is to reinforce their importance, and also to consider them in relation to organisation and administration.

The section on Physical Facilities discusses the type of building which is desirable for the school library, and how much space should be available for the effective operation of the school library. Desirable allocations of floor space in relation to the functions of the school library and information and tables are given in relation to shelving, storage and seating which are relevant to the school library.

Acquisition of information resources is considered in Section Two. The section covers the processes and routines necessary in the acquisition and receipt of information resources which are to be added to the school library collection. Section Three: Organisation of Information Resources is concerned with the strategies which the school librarian can use to gain bibliographic control of the information resources under his/her care in the school library. These strategies are the same in any type of library, or pattern of bibliographic organisation, but may need to be modified to meet the needs of the users of the school library, particularly the students.

The use of information resources by users of the school library is considered in Section 4: Circulation of Information Resources. The section covers the approaches and systems which are necessary for the loan, use and circulation for users, and loan to other school libraries and relevant information agencies. The emphasis is on the effective use of the school's use of information resources held in the school library collection.

The section on Library Operational Procedures discusses organisational matters in relation to hours of opening; open/closed access; conditions of borrowing, and other rules and regulations. Section 6.6: Library Promotional Activities outlines some of the strategies which the school library can use in relation to the publicity and promotion of its resources and services.

The text of the course book for this unit School Library - Organisation and Management is to be complemented by the following publication.

> *University of the South Pacific. Basic library operations: course book. Suva: Institute of Education, USP, 1981.*

You will need to obtain a copy of this publication and use it throughout your study of this unit. You will be referred in this course book, either to:

(a) read the text; or

(b) undertake assignments and exercises in the text.

You will not be able to complete this unit unless you use *Basic Library Operations* as part of your studies.

COURSE II

UNIT VI

PREFACE

The school library exists to support the aims and objectives of the total school programme. The library programme should be the centre of the school's learning programme and be totally integrated into that learning programme. The library does not exist in isolation from the rest of the school. The library's aims and objectives should ensure that the library is administered in such a way that its facilities and instructional resources are adequate to support the school's programme and that the school community will have access to these facilities and resources. School library policies and procedures should be designed to support the educational programmes of the school and not for the convenience of the library staff.

School Library Policy

All schools need to develop and use a written school library policy. This statement of policy should not be written by the school library staff in isolation, written without involving the school teaching staff. A committee of school administrators, teachers, the school librarian and other school library staff, and wherever possible, students and parents should be involved in preparing the school library policy. The policy should then be approved by the governing authority of the school. The library policy must state:

(a) the aims and objectives of the school library;
(b) how these aims and objectives relate to the general aims of education in a particular country;
(c) how these relate to the aims and objectives of a particular school.

In addition to a policy statement of the general aims of the school library, specific policies need to be developed which state the aims and objectives of the various functions and activities that the library will provide. These would include selection policies, policies on organising library resources, policies on co-operation with other information agencies and various administrative policies and procedures. These should all be included in a policy manual and the procedures for implementing these policies should also be written down. Many schools have high staff turnovers and if new staff are to operate the library effectively they need to have written guidelines about what has been done and why it has been done. Written policies and procedures are also helpful in maintaining good relations with staff and students.

A school library programme needs to have certain basic elements if it is to function effectively. These elements include:

(a) facilities to house the information resources or instructional materials, and to enable those resources/materials to be utilised in an effective learning environment;

(b) a wide range of information resources/instructional materials to support the school's educational programme and which are organised in a manner that will allow access by users with a minimum amount of fuss;

(c) adequate financial support by the school and the educational authority to allow (a) and (b) to be achieved;

(d) adequate staffing provision, both at the school librarian, and the support staff level to permit the facilities and resources to be used to a maximum degree of effectiveness.

You may be able to think of other elements which are important in your own school, or educational system.

6.1 PHYSICAL FACILITIES

The provision of physical facilities to house the school library collections and to provide space for the operation of library services is an important aspect in the school's educational aims to provide a variety of information resources and in making students independent learners. The overall appearance of the library is critical in students wanting to use the school library to utilise a range of resources to answer their questions. Whether the school library is in a corridor space, in a separate classroom or in a separate building the first visual impressions should be pleasing and inviting.

As an introduction to this section on physical facilities here are some questions for you to answer about your school library. If you have no library in the school in which you are now teaching you should visit another school which has a library and answer the following questions about that library.

- Is the entrance inviting and attractive?
- Is there good natural light?
- Is the area well ventilated?
- Is it clean without being too tidy?
- Are the walls painted?
- Is the furniture in good repair and attractively arranged?
- Are the tables and chairs varnished or painted?
- Is there matting or covering on the floor?
- Are there clear and attractive signs to the collection and to the catalogue?
- Is there a pin board for notices?
- Is there a display area for books and student projects?
- Are there up-to-date and relevant colourful posters or pictures on the walls?

You may wish to write down your answers to use in the Test Yourself Exercises at the end of this section of the unit.

Essential Space Requirements

Each school library is different in appearance and in the amount of space provided to store the collection of information resources and to provide service to staff and students. However, each school library has essential space requirements. These essential space requirements are for the basic functions of the school library, namely:

(a) space to store a variety of information resources;
(b) space for staff and students to use these information resources;
(c) space for essential keys to the information resources e.g. the catalogue and the school library staff;
(d) space to operate a system for the borrowing and return of these information resources;
(e) space to prepare and organise these information resources for use.

(a) The main groups of information resources to be stored are:

(i) book collection - picture books may be stored vertically in book shelves or in open bin-type shelving with cover facing out or in sloping display racks; regular sized books may be shelved vertically in free-standing adjustable shelving units; reference books, such as encyclopaedias and dictionaries are best stored in a separate unit of free-standing adjustable shelving; large atlases are best stored flat on shelves.

(ii) periodicals and newspapers - current issues are best displayed on sloping shelves or racks, or they may be stored flat on regular sized shelving units.

(iii) pamphlets, cuttings are best stored in filing cabinets or in pamphlet boxes (book-shaped containers) used on regular sized shelving units.

(iv) audio-visual resources are best stored either in separate special units or in pamphlet boxes used on regular sized shelving units.

(v) audio-visual equipment is best stored either in separate storage cabinets or shelving in a separate area, but as close as possible to the audio-visual resources.

(b) The main groups to be considered here are teaching staff and students who need space to:

(i) browse through the information resources on the shelves.
(ii) use, read, listen and view various types of resources at appropriate sitting or standing positions.
(iii) sit individually at a table or carrel to study resources and make notes.
(iv) sit in groups for discussion or instruction in the use of information resources.
(v) consult the catalogue, reference collection.

(c) The essential keys are:

(i) the catalogue usually kept in specially designed cabinets housed in the reading area and usually consulted at standing height.
(ii) the school library staff usually provided for reader services with a special desk such as a reference desk or a specific area of the circulation desk. Staff working on technical services such as cataloguing or on clerical work such as typing would usually be provided with space for these activities in the work area of a school library.
(iii) the reference collection, particularly if it includes indexing services can be considered as part of the keys to the information resources and specific space is usually provided for this collection often in a separate unit of shelving as indicated under (a) (i) above.

(d) The main consideration here is:

(i) the circulation desk which acts as a control point for the system for the borrowing and return of information resources. However as noted in (c) above there may be need to provide in the design of the circulation desk, space to carry out other library tasks, particularly if it is a small school library.

(e) The main tasks to be considered here, requiring provision of space are:

(i) ordering and receiving information resources.
(ii) cataloguing and classifying these resources.
(iii) typing.
(iv) processing resources.
(v) general repairs, maintenance of resources and equipment.
(vi) possible equipment storage.
(vii) display, promotion work.

A table of measurements in relation to (a) the storage of information resources is provided here for your guidance. You should also consult the relevant sections in the References recommended at the end of this section.

Table

Storage of Information Resources

Table of Measurements

Information Resources	Storage Type	Measurements
Picture books	Shelving, regular	4" high, 3' wide with uprights 8" apart 10-12" deep allow 16 books per linear foot
	Bin-type shelving	
Books	Free standing, adjustable shelving units	5'-6' high, 3' wide, 8"-12" deep depending on size of book. Allow 10 books per linear foot.
Reference works, encyclopedias, dictionaries	Free standing, adjustable shelving units	5'-6' high, 3' wide, 12" deep, allow 6-8 books per linear foot.
Periodicals, newspapers	Free standing, adjustable shelving units with sloping racks, or regular shelving.	4' high, 3' wide, 12" deep.
Pamphlets, Cutting files	Commercially produced vertical filing cabinets.	2 drawer unit. 2'6" high, 1'6" wide, 2' deep.
Films	16mm - cans held in wire separator racks on metal shelving; cans held vertically by slotted metal partitions on fixed metal shelves.	3' long rack holds approximately 25 reels or cans.
	8mm loop in cassette, store vertically on adjustable open shelves	
Filmstrips	Cabinets with metal or wooden drawers with recesses for cans.	6 drawer unit, 13¼" X 14" wide and 12½" high holds 294 filmstrips.

Table of Measurements (Cont'd)

Information Resources	Storage Type	Measurements
Slides	Commercially produced slotted boxes stored on shelves or in drawers	2 drawer unit 13½"X4½" X14" deep holds 1,800 cardboard or 900 glass mounted slides
Tapes	Audio in box 5", 7" 10½" or cassette in container - store vertically on adjustable open shelves or storage cabinets	Cabinet 29"X60"X10" deep holds 384-5" or 288-7" reels boxed. Cabinet 29"X60"X12" deep holds 192-10½" reels boxed
Records	7", 10", 12" - store vertically on wire racks; between metal or wooden dividers slotted on shelves or cabinets facing the reader in supermarket type bins	Cabinet 29"X60"X15" deep holds 540 single records. Shelving section 5"X13½" X15" deep holds 35-40 LP records or 25 LP albums.
Transparencies	10½"X12½" wide - store vertically if mounted in vertical filing cabinets or on adjustable divided open shelves; loose leaf binders	Shelving section 5"X13½" X15" deep holds 50 transparencies
Microforms	Film in box - store vertically on adjustable open shelves. Card, Fiche size 14.8 X 10.5cm - file vertically in drawers of appropriate size in card storage cabinets	2 drawer unit 16½"X14 3/4" X6½" high holds 2,000-2,500 cards
Maps, Mounted Pictures, Charts	Store in plan drawer cabinets	Flat storage cabinet 58"X34"X24½" high
Multi-Media Kits	Kit usually in "travelling container" - store on adjustable open shelves	

Planning and Arrangement of the School Library

Not all schools will be able to provide a separate and adequate school library building but it is important that the school librarian should be aware of what is provided in some schools and make necessary adjustments to these recommended standards according to local need and financial resources.

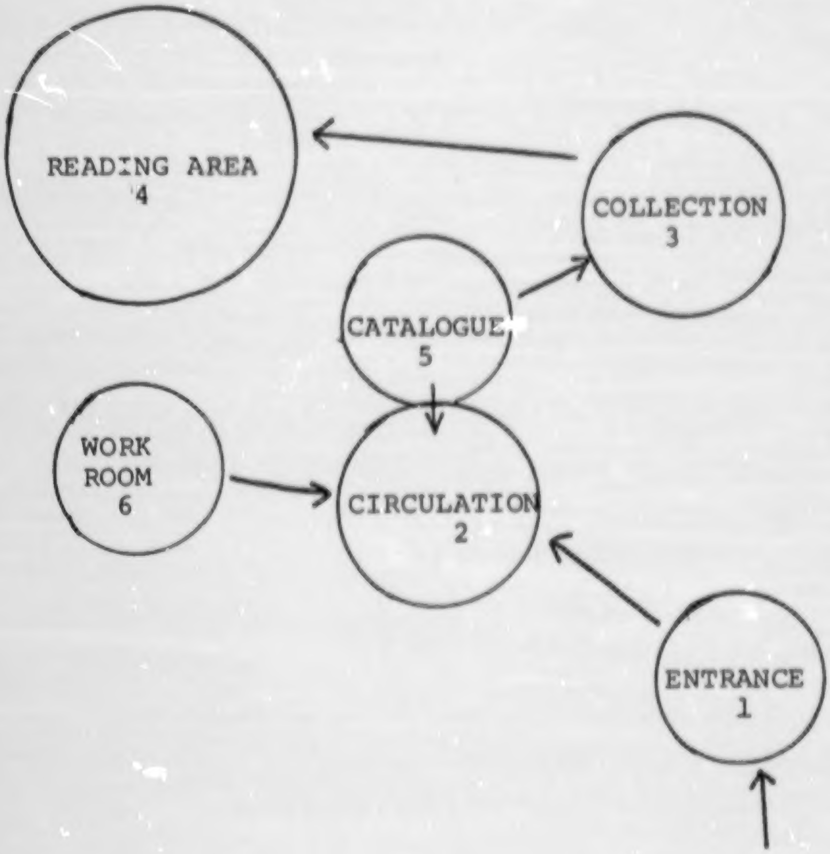
The essential space requirements discussed above need to be translated into a plan based on an overall size for the school library and related to school enrolments. There are a number of published standards for the overall size and you should consult the references listed at the end of this section. As a guide only, the following table is provided:

	School Enrolment	Overall Size	Areas Included
(i)	up to 350	1500 sq. ft.	Reading. Circulation desk/ office.
(ii)	up to 500	3000 sq. ft.	(i) + Small Seminar Room, work area, librarian's office, AIV store.
(iii)	up to 800	5000 sq. ft.	(ii) + Large Seminar Room, Teachers Room.

No matter what the overall size of the school library there are six basic space areas to be considered in planning a school library. These are:

1. Entrance
2. Circulation Desk
3. Collection Storage
4. Reading Area
5. Catalogue
6. Work Area

No matter what the overall size of the school library the relationship of these basic space areas is important for the best use of the total space. The relationship of the different areas should allow for economy of movement by people using the school library. It should be possible after entering the library to return books on loan, consult the catalogue, move to the information resources collection and then to the reading area with a minimum of disturbance. The diagram below illustrates the functional relationship which should be considered when planning a school library, but it is not intended to suggest the outlines of a physical plan.



RELATIONSHIP OF AREAS IN THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

1. Entrance

A foyer should provide an attractive and adequate entrance to the library. In planning the foyer it should be remembered that at various times inward and outward flow of students/staff may be occurring simultaneously. The foyer is an ideal location for some display cases which can be a means of attracting students into the library. Adjacent to the foyer, provision should be made for the storage of school bags, if they are not to be taken into the library.

2. Circulation

As indicated earlier the control point, the Circulation Desk is the main requirement in this area. It is important that this control point be located near the entrance to the school library as well as being adjacent to the work area, particularly if there is only one staff member in the school library. Due to its preferred location, a lot of traffic (students/staff using the library) will occur around the circulation desk and sufficient space should be allowed for this traffic flow. The height of the desk will depend on whether it is in a primary or secondary school and whether chairs or stools are to be used for staff operating behind the desk. For a primary school the desk should be at sitting height or about 2'6" high.

3. Collection Storage
4. Reading Area
5. Catalogue

These are all located usually within the one open space, designated the main reading area. As indicated earlier it is usual to design this area to accommodate 10% of the student enrolment allowing 3.25 square metres per reader. This allowance of 3.25 square metres includes provision for shelving units, a browsing area, catalogue access and the necessary open space near the circulation desk and the entrance. In school libraries being designated for large student enrolments e.g. 800 - 1,000 it may be thought preferable to provide more than one reading area rather than to seat more than 100 students in one area.

The movement of students/staff and the use of information resources will influence the arrangement of this area. It is preferable that there should be ready access from the various seating areas to the information resources collection. Carrels or individual study tables may be grouped together to provide a quieter study area beyond the main information resources collection. There needs to be provision for groups to sit together for brief instructional purposes in the use of the school library.

The catalogue and the reference collection should be easily accessible from the circulation desk as well as readily available to users in the reading areas.

An area for informal reading and browsing may be suitably located adjacent to the entrance and near the periodicals and fiction collection. It is important to make the entrance to the library inviting and attractive.

Seminar rooms may be provided for use by groups of students or to co-ordinate individual work on group projects involving the use of information resources. Glazed partitions should be used or dividers can be made with shelving units. However open seminar rooms present problems for noise control.

6. Work Area

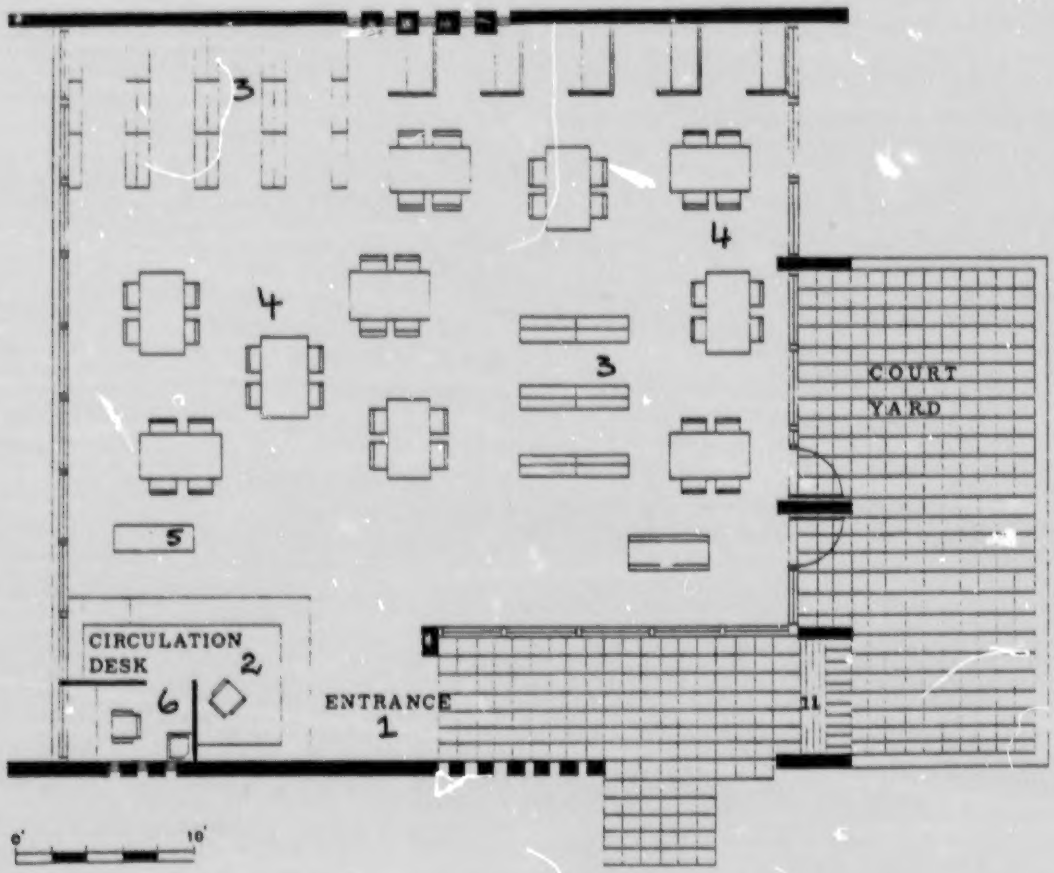
The work area may include an office for the school librarian or there may be a separate office. If the office is within the work area it may be partitioned, or divided by shelving or cupboard units. The work area is for the preparation and organisation of information resources. It is preferably located off the circulation desk area and the main reading area. Partitioning should be glazed from bench height upwards. A separate outside entrance is an advantage for the delivery of materials. The main requirements for this area were indicated earlier.

Storage of audio-visual resources and equipment may be provided within this area. Storage facilities and bench space for maintenance, testing and small repairs are needed, together with necessary power outlets.

RELATIONSHIP OF BASIC SPACE AREAS (1)

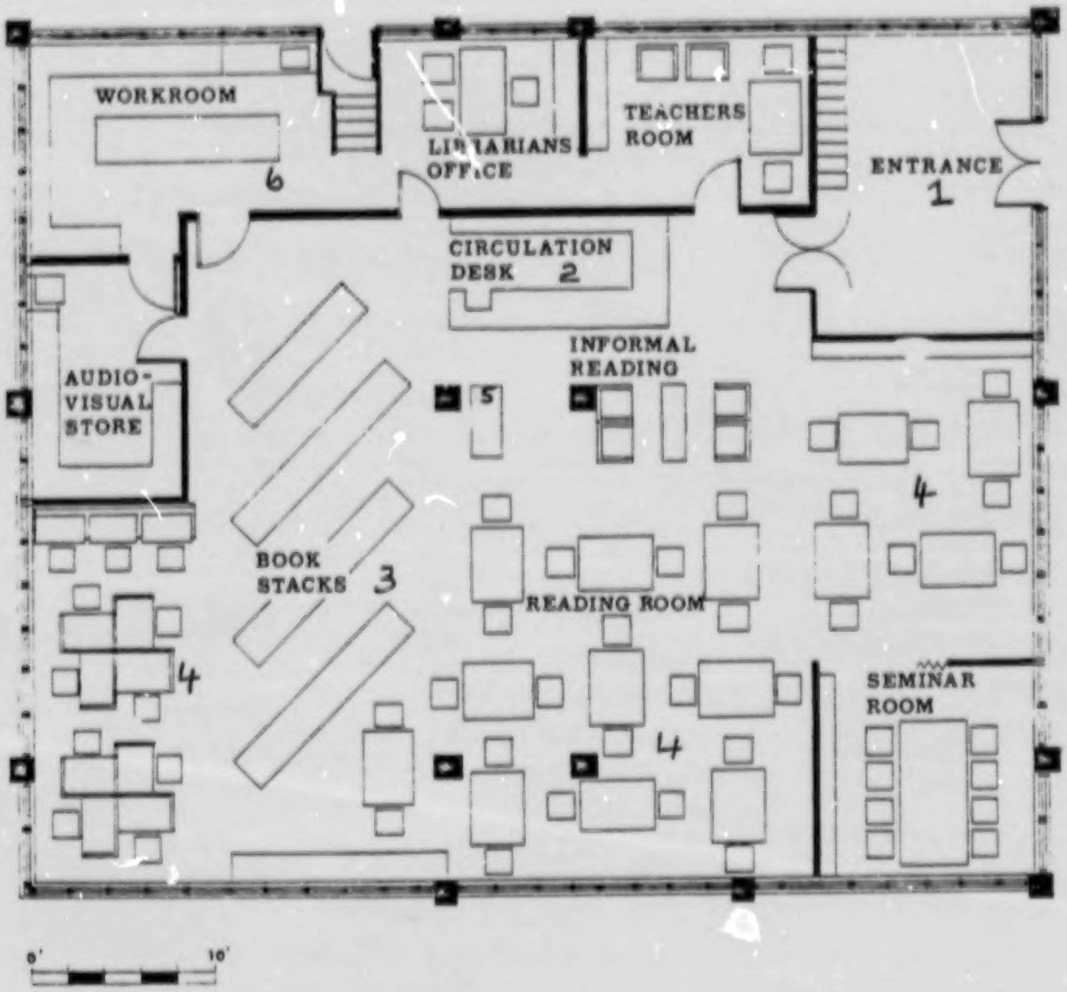
(Nos. refer to the six areas listed above)

A School Library for School With Enrolment Up to 300 Students


3
4
4
3
4
5
CIRCULATION DESK
2
6
ENTRANCE
1
COURT YARD
0'
10'

RELATIONSHIP OF BASIC SPACE AREAS (2)

A School Library for School With Enrolment Up to 450 Students


WORKROOM
6
LIBRARIANS OFFICE
TEACHERS ROOM
ENTRANCE
1
CIRCULATION DESK
2
INFORMAL READING
5
AUDIO-VISUAL STORE
4
BOOK STACKS
3
READING ROOM
4
4
SEMINAR ROOM
0'
10'

Steps in Planning a New School Library

When you have the opportunity to plan a new library building or redesign an existing area for a school library there are a number of steps which need to be taken.

(a) Pre-Planning

This involves the preparation of a report to assist the architect in designing or redesigning the school library. The report is often called an architect's brief and should result from a number of meetings, conferences, discussions, visits to other libraries and reading of the literature on planning library buildings. The report should be prepared by the school librarian in conjunction with the school principal, teaching staff, students and parents and with consultative advice from librarians and educators who have been involved in the design and planning of school libraries. A committee made up of representatives of such groups and including the architect as one of the consultants is a good method to achieve interaction and varied suggestions and information.

Such a committee would gather information and from this the school librarian would prepare a draft of the report to include information on such points as:

(i) Educational aims and objectives of the school; school organisation, present and future; school enrolments, present and future.

(ii) The school curriculum and teaching programmes, present and future; methods of teaching and learning, present and future.

(iii) The role of the library in teaching and learning in the school, present and future; the type, level and number of library staff.

(iv) The use of the library by students and staff, individual and group, scheduled and unscheduled, present and future estimated numbers; patterns of use, present and future; hours of operation, present and future.

(v) Library services provided and envisaged with reference to lending, reference, research, discussion.

(vi) Information resources; size of collection, present and future; desirable standards; related equipment; special requirements for storage and use.

(vii) Arrangement of library, by subject, by type of resource, by user; location and relationship of areas within the library.

(viii) Organisation of the library services, centralised, decentralised; classroom collections; service to classrooms.

(ix) Furniture and fittings, desirable standards; lighting, wiring, cabling, plumbing; security.

The school librarian should discuss the draft report with the architect and be prepared to explain more fully certain sections e.g. patterns of use of the library or work flow patterns. A simple way of describing such patterns is to write down a table of work flow. Here is an example of such a table for receiving and processing information resources:

TABLE

Work Flow

Receiving and Processing Materials

- Deliveries - from truck to work area
- Unpacking - from boxes to shelves
- Checking against order file - from shelves to order file and back
- Accessioning - from shelves to desk and back

- Awaiting cataloguing - on shelves
- Cataloguing/Classifying - from shelves to desk, checking catalogue
- Shelf listing - from shelves to desk and back
- Preparation for borrowing - from shelves to bench to reading room.

(b) Siting the Library

As well as preparing the report (architect's brief) the planning committee should consider the site for the library. In many instances the choice of a site may be limited. Irrespective of whether you are planning a separate building or an area within an existing building, general points to consider are:

(i) Accessibility - the library should be easily accessible from other areas of the school. It should be close to or adjacent to the general classroom and teaching areas so that the information resources provided in the school library are readily available to students and teachers.

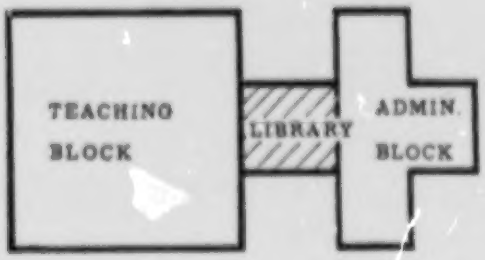
(ii) Use Outside School Hours, Possible Community Use - a ground floor location with direct access to the outside is preferable so that the library is more accessible when other parts of the school buildings may not be open.

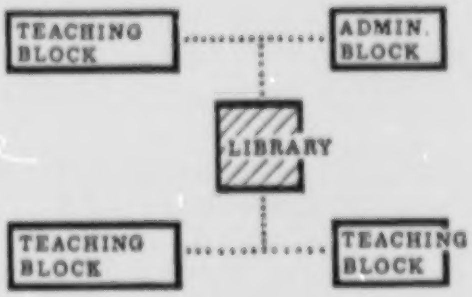
(iii) Noise Factors - a site removed from loud noise areas such as the school areas of music and sports and outside general road traffic.

(iv) Possibility of Expansion - select a location which provides opportunities for expansion. When providing the library within a new school building plan for classrooms or easily altered areas adjacent to the library area.

The following diagrams give some possible sites for a school library.

SOME POSSIBLE SITES FOR THE SCHOOL LIBRARY


TEACHING BLOCK
LIBRARY
ADMIN. BLOCK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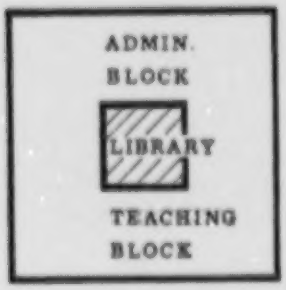
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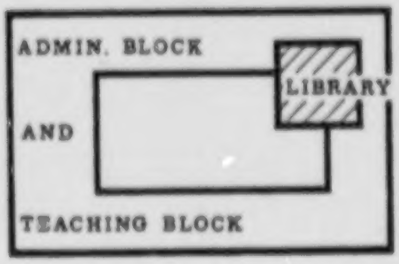
ADMIN. BLOCK
LIBRARY
AND
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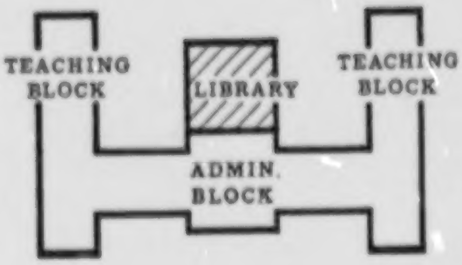

TEACHING BLOCK
LIBRARY
TEACHING BLOCK
ADMIN. BLOCK

(c) Sketch Plans

These are drawn up by the architect and should be discussed with the planning committee. The school librarian should check carefully all points made in the architect's brief against these sketch plans. Particular points to check always:

- (i) Relationship of areas
- (ii) Traffic and work flow
- (iii) Size of areas
- (iv) Placement of windows, doors, partitions, particularly in relation to placement of shelving to store information resources
- (v) Lighting and power outlets
- (vi) Circulation desk
- (vii) Work area

(d) Selecting Furniture and Fittings

Furniture used in the school library should preferably be specifically library-designed and matching. However, if this is not possible try to group your assortment of furniture to the best advantage. Repainting or varnishing can achieve a more harmonious appearance.

When selecting furniture consider such qualities as:

Is it functional?
Is it strong?
Is it easy to repair?
Is it comfortable?

(e) Some Measurements for Use When Arranging Furniture

(i) Aisles
- between shelving units, not less than 3'.
- between shelving units and reading tables, 5'.
- between tables where chairs are back to back, 5'.
- between ends of tables where there are no chairs, 2'.

(i) **Reader Space** - each reader requires at least 3' x 2' surface area.

- each reader at a table for 4 persons requires 18 sq. ft. of floor space.
- each reader at an individual carrel or table requires 25 sq. ft. of floor space.
- carrels or individual tables grouped along a wall, require 15 sq. ft. for each reader. If grouped in pairs but not against a wall, each reader requires 22½ sq. ft.
- when using audio visual materials and equipment, each reader requires 3'0" x 2'9" surface area.
- if carrel has a divider it should be not less than 18" high.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

SECTION ONE (6.1)

1. Refer back to the introduction to this section where you where asked some questions about a school library. Write down your answers and where relevant what you intend to do about improving the general appearance of your school library. Take pictures before and after to illustrate the changes you have made.

2. Draw up a work flow table which would assist the architect to understand the following processes in a school library:

   (i) Cataloguing and classifying information resources;
   (ii) Preparing information resources for borrowing;
   (iii) Repairing a book with torn out pages and a loose cover.

3. Trace the reader traffic flow on the printed plan attached for such library use as:

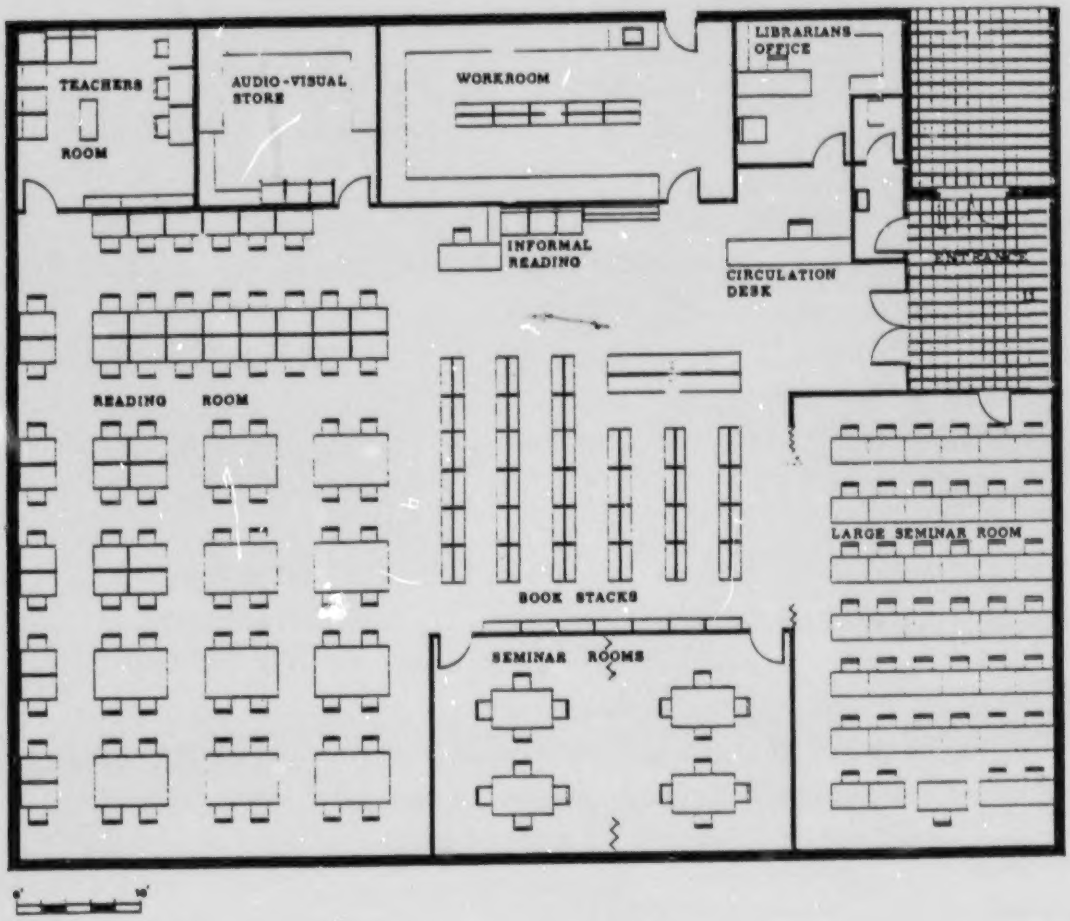
   (i) A student coming into the library, using the catalogue, going to the shelf for the particular item required, and sitting down to look at it;
   (ii) A group of students coming into the library for a talk on the use of reference books, listening to the short talk and demonstration and then carrying out a test reference question individually.

4. From the traffic flow traced on the plan, comment critically on the arrangement of the library and the relationship of areas and make recommendations for relocation of areas for better use.

5. Draw a simple floor diagram which sets out an improved arrangement of your school library, based on this section.

DIAGRAM

An example of a plan for a library with a student enrolment of 800.
N.B. Use this plan to trace the traffic flow pattern exercises referred to on previous page.


TEACHERS ROOM
AUDIO-VISUAL STORE
WORKROOM
LIBRARIANS OFFICE
INFORMAL READING
CIRCULATION DESK
ENTRANCE
READING ROOM
BOOK STACKS
LARGE SEMINAR ROOM
SEMINAR ROOMS

6.2 ACQUISITION OF INFORMATION RESOURCES

The acquisition of new information resources to be added to the school library collection is an important part of the professional role of the school librarian. Unless new information resources are added to the collection on a regular basis, the collection will grow old, become outdated and affect the quality of the library and information service available to the school community. It is therefore important that the acquisition programme be effectively organised.

There are many factors which influence the school library's acquisition programme. These can be divided into three main areas:

(a) the amount of money which is available to be spent, usually known as the budget;

(b) the school library selection policy as approved by the school library administrators and the community;

(c) priorities in specific subject areas, or types of information resource as determined by the collection development programme.

Each of these has been discussed in Unit 4 on Selection and Evaluation of Information Resources for the School. You should now re-read the relevant sections of Unit 4 as a revision activity and you should also redo the exercises for those sections as part of the revision activity.

No school library can afford to purchase all the information resources that it would wish to select for a school library. The school librarian therefore will establish a want file or consideration file. This file is used to determine priorities at the time of ordering. The want file is usually a file of cards or pieces of paper, both of which usually measure 125 cm x 75 cm. This is a standard international size, and allows the card or paper to be filed in most library catalogue filing cabinets with no trouble. They are compatible from one library to another, and with booksellers and library supply agencies.

A typical entry in a want file will record the same bibliographic details for each item as would be included in the library catalogue. The person/bodies responsible for the artistic and intellectual content of the work (author) should be recorded, along with title, subject and publication/distribution details. In addition details of price, vendor availability and any unique number such as the ISBN, ISSN or manufacturer's special number such as found on a sound disc are necessary. The name of the teacher, student or member of the community recommending the item should be included. This allows further dialogue with the person when it has been decided not to purchase the item, or to inform them when the item they suggested has been added to the collection. This is important for public relations. It is important to know whether the information resource has been personally evaluated by the recommending person, or whether it has been selected from some type of selection or reviewing journal/aid or similar publication. You will remember that some of these journals and aids also have to be evaluated in relation to their point of view, type of resource included and quality of their perceptions. When the entries have been compiled, the school library assistant can then file the entries until it is time to order resources for the school library.

At the time of placing an order, the school librarian should check each item in the want file and determine if that item should be purchased. Many school librarians rate the items placed in the want file by priority. If they have only limited funds, then high priority items will be ordered and if more funds are available lower priority items can be purchased.

The school librarian needs to keep the file up to date and remove any items which have not been ordered at least every two years. If the file gets too large it will be less useful, so it is important that the school librarian regularly weeds the want file and informs people that it will not be possible to order resources which they have recommended for selection. The school librarian must be able to explain why those decisions have been made, and also to justify them on a professional basis.

A suggested format for an information resource selection slip which can also be used in the want file may look like this example.

ORDER SUGGESTION CARD
Author etc.:
Title:
Place of Publication: Date of
Publisher: Publication:
Edition:
No. of Copies:
Source:
Recommended by: Date:
Rejected: Date:
Ordered: Date:
Suggestor Notified: See Over

Sometimes all the required bibliographic details and other relevant information cannot be given on one side of such a card, and it is therefore necessary to record the additional information on the back of the card. Therefore the use of the term, See Over, means to look on the back of the card for other relevant and appropriate information to be used in the acquisition process. You may find other examples of similar stationery in your own country and educational system, however, the level of information will be the same.

The ordering process requires professional judgement, expertise and experience on the part of the school librarian. This is in relation to the most appropriate agency which can supply the relevant information resources. Considerations which need to be made include:

(a) choice of supplier of the information resources: whether it be local, inter-region or overseas;
(b) pricing policies of suppliers, in relation to who is cheapest and quickest to supply the required information resources;
(c) quality of service, particularly in relation to time of delivery after order has been placed, reporting on unavailable items, and other similar professional services which the school librarian has the right to expect from a bookshop, a library supply agency or other supplier of information resources.

Once these decisions have been taken, the school librarian will need to develop a system which keeps an accurate record of the orders which have been placed, and permits a search of unfilled orders on a regular basis. Some school libraries will have to comply with the ordering system imposed on them by the educational authority to which they belong. Any of these procedures which are developed need to ensure that with a minimum effort the school librarian has financial control over their own system. The system needs to ensure the school library staff can:

(a) determine what information resources are on order;
(b) calculate how much money has been committed to purchase the resources;
(c) what resources have been received, and are awaiting processing before being placed in the school library collection.

An effective order system requires:

(a) record of the item on order;
(b) a record of the authorisation to purchase items;
(c) record of the commitment of expenditure on orders placed with vendors.

The placement of orders for the purchase of information resources should be made at regular intervals either monthly or once a term. It is both time consuming and expensive to order single items unless there are some special circumstances that require you to do this. It is usual to group items for purchase in "batches".

A separate order card should be completed for each item taken from the want file. You will notice that the example of the card for the want file referred to earlier in this section was headed Order: Suggestion Card. With such a card, you can utilise the same record for the order card by withdrawing from the want file the specific cards for each of the items to be ordered. It will be necessary to add an order number and a date of order to the want file card if it is to be used as an order card. Some libraries may have separate printed order cards. In this case the information from the want file card must be transferred to the order card.

For some order systems you will require more than one copy of the order card which will mean either copying by hand, typing with carbon copies or photocopying the order cards.

As well as the order card, an official numbered order or purchase form is required to cover each "batch" of individual order cards being sent to a particular vendor. If more than one vendor is being used for the particular "batch", then a separate official numbered order or purchase form is required. This form is an official authorisation of the order by the school principal and is usually signed by that officer. Most education authorities have specially printed order or purchase forms. If they do not one can be designed as illustrated on the following page. Order forms need to be at least in duplicate. One copy must always be retained in the library and one copy forwarded to the vendor.

To forward an order to a vendor you will need to send to the vendor:

(a) an order card for each item;

(b) an official numbered order form authorising the purchase of all items to be ordered from that vendor.

To record orders sent to vendors you will need to keep in the library:

(a) an alphabetical order file comprised of an order card for each item ordered from vendors with the official numbered order (taken from order form) recorded on each order card covered by that order form;

(b) a numerical order form file comprised of a copy of all official numbered order forms authorising purchase of items from stated vendors.

In addition to these records the school library will need to maintain an accurate record of the amount of money committed to the purchase of information resources. It will not be possible to be completely accurate in such a record. However, the main purpose in keeping such a record is to ensure that there is no over commitment of finance and that all finance allocated for the purchase of resources is spent in the specified period, usually one year.

A simple order commitment book can be kept for this purpose,

NUMBERED ORDER FORM

NAME OF SCHOOL

ORDER FORM

NUMBER: *(Pre-printed)* ....

DATE: ....

ADDRESS: ....

....

PHONE NO: ....

CONTACT: ....

TO: *(Vendor)* ....

....

....

Please supply the following goods;

" ... items as per list attached for school library"
(No.)

Signed: ....
(Authorising Person)

ruled up as set out on the next page. To maintain the record calculate the total costs of each order to a vendor by adding up the price listed on each order card. If there is no price given enter an average cost (calculated from previous purchases). Enter the total cost in the commitment book as indicated on the next page. Subtract each entry from the total budget provided for the purchase of information resources. If ordered items are not received for some reason, add the committed price to the amount available for purchase. This order commitment record will enable the school librarian to have a more accurate picture of budget commitment and expenditure.

In summary the procedures to be followed when ordering information resources for the school library are:-

(i) Prepare selected items for ordering from want file by checking accuracy of bibliographic information for each item.

(ii) Use want file record as order card OR type or clearly write out order cards, at least two copies required for each item.

(iii) Make out official numbered order form in duplicate, a separate form for each vendor. Attach one copy of each order card to the official order form. Record the vendor on the official numbered order form and the date ordered on each order card covered by this order form.

(iv) Calculate and enter financial commitment into the commitment order book.

(v) Have official order authorised by principal's signature.

(vi) File school library copy of the order card into the "orders outstanding" file and file copy of the official numbered order form in numerical order form file.

(vii) Send one copy of official order form with order cards attached to vendor or central purchasing authority.

ORDER COMMITMENT BOOK

(Sample Page)

LIBRARY COMMITMENT YEAR ....

DECEMBER Carried over from previous page Balance $571

DATE	SUPPLIER	INVOICE NO.	AMOUNT COMMITTED	BALANCE
Dec. 1, 1982	Pacific Publishers	23	$121	$450

An effective receiving system for orders made requires:

(a) checking item was ordered and is in good condition;
(b) authorising payment to the vendor;
(c) recording item has been received and is awaiting further processing.

When goods are received from a vendor the school library assistant should unpack the items and sort them by author. The condition of each item should be checked and any damaged resources put aside for return to the vendor. The order card for each item received should be removed from the "orders outstanding file". The school library assistant should compare the item with the information on the order card to ensure that the library has received what was ordered. Each item with relevant order card is checked against the vendor's invoice and the relevant official order number (on the order card) is marked against the item on the invoice. When all items have been checked against the invoice, the invoice is used to check off the items outlined on the official order form and commitment records are adjusted if required.

If the school library is required to maintain an accession book then the details of the source (vendor and order number) and price for each item is entered in the accession book. (If the library does not maintain an accession book this information can be written on the shelf list card when the book is catalogued or the order card can be used as a shelf list card by adding shelf list details). The item will be given an accession number at the time it is entered in the accession book. These numbers are given in numerical order to each item as they are received by the school library. The first item ever received by the library would be given the number 1 and each successive item will receive the next highest number. The accession book will record the last accession number used so that each successive item can be numbered correctly. Write the accession number on the book and also on the order card. (See the following page for a sample of the accession register). The invoice should be marked to indicate that all items have been received or if any items are missing or damaged this should also be indicated on the invoice. The invoice is then sent to whatever authority in the school or education system pays accounts. The order commitment book should be adjusted to show the amount actually invoiced rather than that committed if they differ. The order cards should now be filed in the "orders received file".

In summary the procedures to be followed when receiving information resources for the school library are:

(i) unpack the resources and sort them by author;
(ii) take out order cards from orders outstanding file;
(iii) check items received against order card and vendor's invoice, mark official order form numbers against each item on vendor's invoice;
(iv) accession item;
(v) mark item and order card with the unique accession number;
(vi) shelve items as awaiting cataloguing and processing;
(vii) prepare invoice for payment;
(viii) adjust order commitment book;
(ix) file order cards in orders received file.

Some information resources such as newspapers and magazines are received by the library at regular intervals but they are only paid for once a year when the library enters a subscription for the item. It is important that the school library staff knows that a copy of all of the issues of the periodical that have been paid for have been received.

LIBRARY ACCESSION BOOK

(Sample Page)

LIBRARY ACCESSION BOOK				
DATE	AUTHOR TITLE	SOURCE	ORDER NO	PRICE

A periodical accession register card or sheet should be prepared for each separate periodical title subscribed to by the library. When a particular issue arrives, its receipt is noted by marking the register. The school library assistant should check the register at a regular interval and request any items not received from the publishers. Periodical accession register cards can be purchased from library supply companies, but they can easily be produced locally. The periodical accession register card should be in the following format:

PERIODICAL ACCESSION REGISTER

ee Price Missing Parts:

er	Vol.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Renew On

STRUCTIONS:

TLE:

Procedures for ordering and receiving information resources should be kept as simple as possible. Do not make and create records that are not really needed by the school library. Place orders at regular intervals, avoid ordering one or two items at a time, ordering costs time and money.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION TWO (6.2)

1. List three factors which will influence the school library's acquisition programme.

2. List the information which should be recorded on each entry in the want file in a school library.

3. List and describe three points which the school librarian would need to consider in relation to choosing suppliers of information resources.

4. List and describe the procedures the school library staff need to consider in the receipt of new information resources at the school library.

6.3 ORGANISATION OF INFORMATION RESOURCES

Information resources need to be organised in such a way that the user can find an item by knowing the title, or the author, or the subject of the particular item. The school librarian carries out the two functions of cataloguing and classifying information resources.

Cataloguing is the process by which an information resource is described according to a set of rules known as cataloguing rules. There is a recognised set of such rules called *The Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules*.

Classifying is the process by which information resources are grouped and arranged according to a classification scheme. There are a number of such schemes but the one most commonly used in school and public libraries is called the Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme.

To enable users to find information by subject, published lists of subject headings are used to ensure that the same form of subject heading is used each time for a particular subject.

You should now consult:

> *Basic Library Operations: Course Book. Suva: University of the South Pacific, 1981.*

and read all units and answer the relevant exercises in the Course Introduction Assignment Book before going on with the remainder of this section which emphasises cataloguing and classifying processes relevant to school libraries.

It is important for school librarians to use standard rules and schemes and not deviate from widely accepted library practice. School librarians should use the *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules* and you should now have refreshed your knowledge of these rules by reading the relevant sections of the course book *Basic Library Operations*.

School libraries should use an accepted published classification scheme, such as the Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme. It is appropriate for school libraries to use the abridged edition of this scheme. School libraries should use an accepted published list of subject headings such as *Sears List of Subject Headings*. Again you should have refreshed your knowledge of classification schemes and particularly the D.D.C. and the use of subject headings by reading the relevant sections of the course book *Basic Library Operations*.

The Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme may be used for audiovisual materials, using the same procedures as for books. It is usual, however, to add a symbol to the classification number to indicate the type of resource so that the user knows immediately what type of item it is.

The classification number for a kit on the human body would look something like:

KT611 *or* KT
611

A call number may also be added. The item could be shelved in a separate sequence or interfiled with books on the same subject. A list of the symbols for use with audiovisual materials is given below.

List of Symbols for Use with Audiovisual Resources

These or similar symbols may be used for audiovisual resources. It is important to keep a record of the symbols used as you add to or amend the list.

Audio-tapes, reel-to-teel	AR
Audio-tapes, cassette	AC
Exhibits	EX

Filmstrips	FS
Kits	KT
Microfiche	MC
Microfilm	MM
Models	MD
Motion Films	MF
Photographs	PH
Prints	PR
Records	RC
Slides	SL
Transparencies	TR
Videotapes	VT

Fiction is classified in school libraries by using the symbol F and is not classified by the Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme.

When cataloguing information resources for the school library keep the bibliographic information to essentials to ensure that the catalogue entry is not too complicated and that the studnets particularly, will be able to easily see the essential information of author, title and subject as well as call number. The information included on a main entry card for a school library catalogue will not be as detailed as for larger general libraries.

In the course book *Basic Library Operations* you studied main entry, title entry and subject entry for larger libraries as set out in this main entry.

Main Entry (Author entry) for General Library

990 Crawford, Raymond Maxwell
CRA Ourselves and the Pacific / R.M.
Crawford. -- 5th ed. -- Melbourne :
Melbourne University Press, 1975.
ix, 317 p. ; 23 cm.

Includes bibliography.
ISBN 0-435-34390-4

1. Australia--History. 2. New
Zealand--History. I. Title.

For a school library the main entry for the book *Ourselves and the Pacific* would be:

Main Entry (Author entry) for School Library

990 Crawford, Raymond Maxwell
CRA Ourselves and the Pacific, 5th ed.
Melbourne : Melbourne University
Press, 1975.

ISBN 0-435-34390-4

1. Australia--History. 2. New
Zealand--History. I. Title.

Details such as additional author statement, number of pages when more than 50 pp., book size and notes about the book are not usually included on main entries prepared for school libraries.

For a school library a title entry is made for every information resource, unless the subject heading is the same as the title.

Ourselves and the Pacific

990 Crawford, Raymond Maxwell
CRA Ourselves and the Pacific, 5th ed.
Melbourne : Melbourne University
Press, 1975.

ISBN 0-435-34390-4

1. Australia--History. 2. New
Zealand--History. I. Title.

The subject entries for the same title for a school library would be:

AUSTRALIA-HISTORY

990 Crawford, Raymond Maxwell
CRA Ourselves and the Pacific, 5th ed.
Melbourne : Melbourne University
Press, 1975.
ix, 317 p. :

ISBN 0-435-34390-4

1. Australia--History. 2. New
Zealand--History. I. Title.

NEW ZEALAND-HISTORY

990 Crawford, Raymond Maxwell
CRA Ourselves and the Pacific, 5th ed.
Melbourne : Melbourne University
Press, 1975
ix, 317 p. :

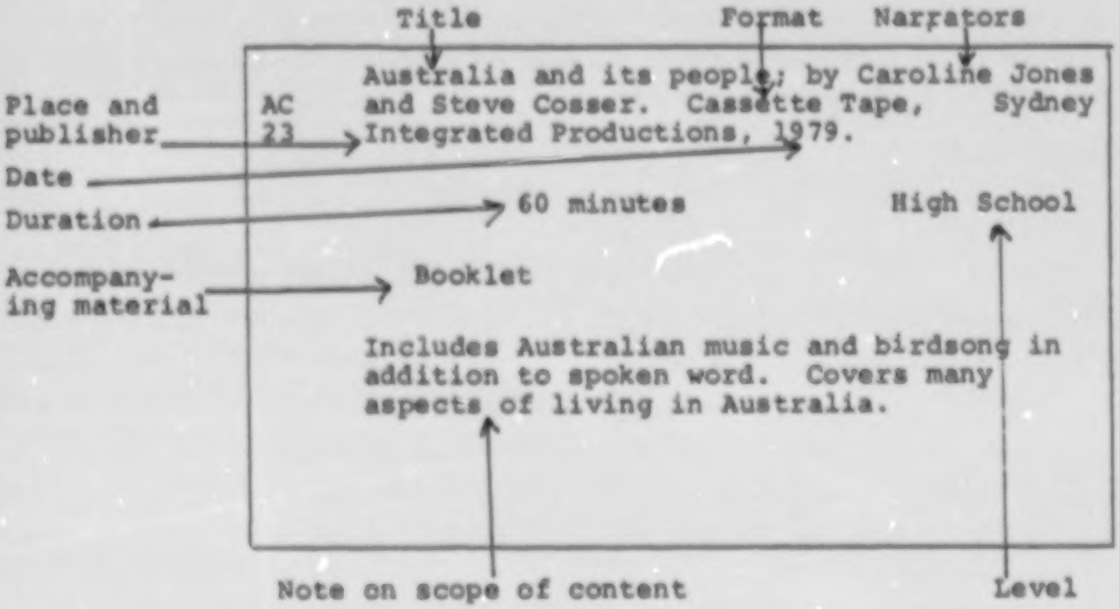
ISBN 0-435-34390-4

1. Australia--History. 2. New
Zealand--History. I. Title.

The same general cataloguing principles apply to audiovisual resources. However, it may be advisable in school libraries to give more detail for audiovisual resources in the main and added entires as this will be easier than trying to obtain details by browsing. A catalogue card for an audiovisual item could therefore contain all of the following information.

1. Call number (classification number, plus symbol and other systems used by library).
2. Main entry, using title entry for all audiovisual resources.
3. Identification of resource, e.g. filmstrip
4. Imprint giving name of producer or manufacturer, date and place of publication or production.
5. Collation. A physical description of the itme including form of reproduction, the length of time to use, equipment needed.
6. Series note. If a set of items is catalogued separately this is important.
7. Level for which item is suitable e.g. secondary or primary school.
8. Accompanying material such as teacher's guide, descriptive notes.

Example of a Catalogue Card for an Audiovisual Item



AC
23

Australia and its people; by Caroline Jones and Steve Cosser. Cassette Tape, Sydney Integrated Productions, 1979.

60 minutes

High School

Booklet

Includes Australian music and birdsong in addition to spoken word. Covers many aspects of living in Australia.

Once the item has been classified and catalogued by the school librarian a series of catalogue cards need to be prepared by the school library assistant. Two main entry cards are required and one card for each added entry such as title or subject. If the school library has access to duplicating facilities all of the cards can be exact copies of the main entry card, with the added entry typed above the main entry. If each card needs to be typed separately the added entry information can be included only on the main entry card. If a typewiter is not available, catalogue cards can be hand printed. When typing catalogue cards follow these procedures.

Prepare a unit card which can be used for all entries:

1. Leave three lines blank at the top of the card for typing in added entries.
2. Leave three spaces from the left-hand edge of the catalogue card and type the Dewey Classification number in the fourth position.

3. Allow 11 spaces for the Dewey number (including the decimal point) and start the main entry on the 15th space from the left-hand edge of the card.
4. That part of the author's name which comes before the first punctuation mark must be in upper case.

   e.g. SMITH, John
   FIJI. Dept. of Education.
5. All other lines of the catalogue card start on the 16th space from the left-hand edge of the card, i.e. they are indented one space relative to the author's name.
6. The collation (number of pages, illustrations, size - if required) is always started on a new line. If it takes more than one line the indentation is still 15 spaces, i.e. each line starts on the 16th space.
7. Where collation is not required, the series statement is always started on a new line.
8. Leave two lines between the end of the description and the first added entry.
9. If the added entry occupies more than one line, subsequent lines are still indented 15 spaces, i.e., each line starts on the 16th space.
10. Where an item is catalogued under its title, the first word starts on the 15th space in the first line and all other lines are started on the 16th space, e.g.

769   STAMPS / ed. by David Roberts and others. -
STA   Maidenhead, Berks. : Purnell , 1975.
        (Start to collect series)

        1. Stamps and stamp collecting.
        I. Roberts, David, ed.

ISBN 0-361-03239-0

Preparing the Shelf List

One copy of the main entry card is filed in the shelf list which is arranged in the same way the information resources are arranged on the shelf by call number. The shelf list provides the school library staff with an inventory of the information resources held by the library. Cards are filed into the shelf list in the following way:

(a) NON-FICTION cards are arranged in numerical order by call number. In school libraries the call number includes the classification number sub-arranged alphabetically by author's surname.

Example:	530	530.1	530.11	530.11	530.9	530.9	531
	BEI	LAN	GAR	GAR 2	FRA	SHI	BAS

(b) FICTION cards are arranged alphabetically by the author's surname. If more than one author has the same surname, they are sub-arranged by forenames. A surname followed by an initial precedes the same surname followed by a forename beginning with the same initial letter. If there is more than one title by an author, the cards are sub-arranged alphabetically by title.

Example: Beach, Edward L.
Run silent, run deep.

Bell, J. Bowyer
Besieged.

Bell, J.H.
Cryogenic engineering.

Bell, Josephine
Adventure with crime.

Bell, Jospehine
No escape.

Bell, Margaret E.
Watch for a tall white sail.

Bell, Saul
Dangling man.

One set of the cards (main entry and added entries) are filed in the school library catalogue. In school libraries, a dictionary catalogue is recommended. In a dictionary catalogue all cards - author, title and subject - are interfiled in alphabetical sequence by the words on the top line of the catalogue card. The school library staff should follow accepted filing rules when filing cards into the public catalogue. You should refresh your knowledge of filing rules by reading the relevant section of the course book.

Procedures for Processing Information Resources

Once a particular item is classified and catalogued, it needs to be processed for inclusion in the library's collection. The following procedures should be followed before an item can be placed into the collection for use by students and staff of the school. Procedures for processing of audiovisual materials are dealt with in Section 3 of the course.

1. Check that the accession number has been written inside the item (use the same place for all items of the same format).
2. Stamp the item with the school library's ownership stamp.
3. Write the call number on the item (for books use the top right corner of the back of the front cover).
4. Prepare book pocket and circulation record according to the classification scheme used. The following information is usually required for circulation systems:
    - call number
    - accession numbers
    - author
    - title
5. Fix pocket to item.

6. Place call number on outside of item for purpose of filing on shelf - there are two methods for doing this:
   - (a) Electric Stylus Method. This method uses a special stylus; allow stylus to heat for two minutes; place a piece of white transfer paper on the item, usually for a book on the lower part of the book spine; write call number on the paper which will then transfer to the item.
   - (b) Call number label. This call number is typed or written on a special pressure-sensitive label which is then fastened to the item. A piece of clear tape should be placed over the label to insure longer life of the label. The call number should always be placed in the same place on all items of the same format.

It is important that the needs of the user be kept foremost in mind when cataloguing and classifying information resources for a school library. The tasks of cataloguing and classifying of information resources are usually performed by the school librarian but the school library assistant is often involved in simple descriptive cataloguing and should understand the processes involved in such tasks.

Shelving and Care of Information Resources

In a school library information resources are usually arranged on the shelf in two sequences:

(a) fiction, and
(b) non-fiction.

For school libraries it is recommended that all resources on the same subject, no matter what format, should be interfiled. This allows a user to locate all types of resources on a particular subject: books, filmstrips, tapes or pictures. If it is not possible to interfile all resources, then separate sequences will have to be established for special formats, such as slides, filmstrips and pictures.

Fiction resources are arranged in alphabetical order, by the book number which is the first three letters of the author's surname. Remember school libraries do not classify fiction by the Dewey Decimal Classification System. A fiction item is classified "F", with the first three letters of the author's surname forming the book number. Order is from left to right. In arranging the fiction items on the shelf one, two or all three letters may have to be taken into account as in the examples below:

(a) F AIL   F BOL   F CLK

(b) F CIC   F CON   F CPK

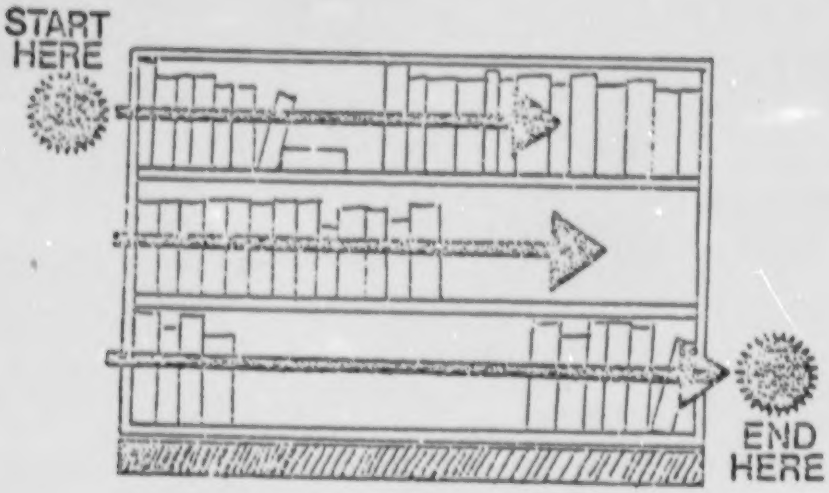
(c) F CIC   F CID   F CIS

Non-Fiction resources are arranged in numerical order. Order is from left to right, lowest numbers first, as in the examples below:

400 ALK   410 PIC   411 AIP   421 BCD

410 PIC   410 PJK   410 RIN   410 STP

Resources are arranged on the shelves in bays from left to right and from top to bottom.



Maintenance of the Collection

Information resources can be damaged or destroyed. It is important that school library staff are aware of some of the causes of damage and take steps to protect the resources in the library from needless destruction.

Animals - insects are the animals that cause the greatest damage to information resources. Cockroaches, silverfish and termites are particularly dangerous to books and other paperbound resources. Insects seem to thrive best when they live in an undisturbed environment. Shelves should be dusted regularly and the books, if not well used, should be dusted. If the insects are a serious problem, the joints on the shelves can be treated with long-lasting insecticides. Since termites can eat through wooden shelves, libraries in the tropics should use metal shelves or shelves made from wood which has been treated against termites.

Other animals such as mice and rats can also damage information resources, especially books and periodicals. They often use paper to make nests. The school library should have any openings in the walls, floors, etc. sealed to prevent these animals from entering the library. If they are present, they can be exterminated with traps or poisons. These should be used with care - the safety of the students using the library must be of paramount importance.

Dampness and Mould - information resources need to be protected against dampness. Do not place shelves near windows or shutters that might leak. If possible, the library should be airconditioned and dehumidified. Keep information resources free from mould by cleaning (wiping) them regularly and keep them in well-ventilated areas.

Sunlight - the direct exposure of information resources to the ultraviolet rays of the sun can cause bleaching. All resources should be stored or shelved away from direct sunlight.

People - while the purpose of information resources in a school library is that they should be used by people, some people cause damage to the resources. It is always better to risk damage by use than to preserve resources by restricting use. However, students and staff should be instructed in the importance of taking care of the resources that they do use.

Repairing Information Resources - no matter how well information resources are maintained, some of them will become damaged. Repairing an item should not cost more than the item is worth. If they are very badly damaged, it is usually best to purchase a new copy and cut the damaged copy, using pictures, etc. for the vertical file. The school library staff should be able to carry out a number of simple repairs for common types of damage.

Some supplies needed to repair books are:-

- Glue - white glue and rubber cement recommended;
- Brushes;
- Razor blades;

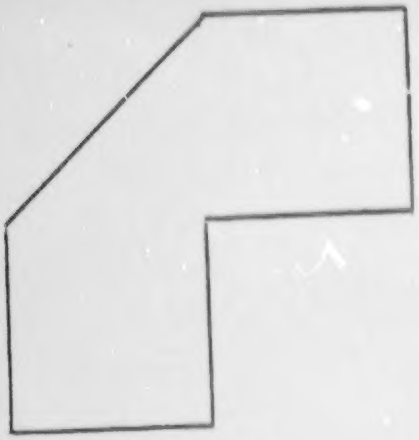
Waxed paper (to place between paper to prevent unwanted adhesion);
Invisible permanent mending-tape. (not cellophane tape, as it discolours and becomes brittle);
Cloth mending tape (often called binder's tape);
A cleaner such as turpentine.

Some simple repairs that the school library staff can carry out are:

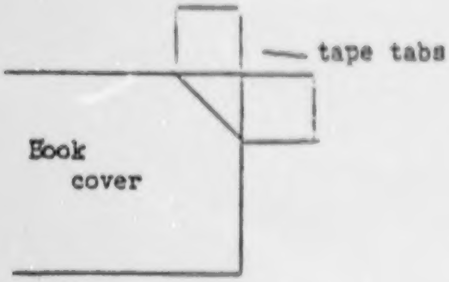
Torn Pages
These should be repaired with a strip of 12mm invisible mending tape on the side of the page where the tear overlaps on top.

Loose Pages
The page should be completely removed. A dollop of glue is put on a piece of plastic or wax paper and the spine edge of the page run through the glue. The page is then put back in position and the book closed and left to dry. If a number of pages are loose, then after the glueing process, a long-arm heavy duty stapler can be used near the spine, to add strength.

Dog-eared Cover Corners can be repaired by using cloth mending-tape to cover them.



The shape illustrated is formed by cutting a piece of cloth mending-tape into a square, removing a corner and cutting a triangle off opposite the corner.



The tape is placed on the corner as illustrated and the tabs tucked under.

Broken Spine

This can be repaired by placing a strip of binder's tape along the spine. The tape should be wide enough to allow a generous overlap on both the front and rear covers.

A Cover That is Loose from the Body of the Book

This can be fixed by placing glue into the edge of the book spine. Spread the glue with a brush and place body into spine of the cover. Stand the book on its spine, supported upright on both sides and allow glue to dry. If binder's tape is available, it can be used to make the repair even stronger. Cut a length of the tape slightly shorter than the length of the book. Spread glue on one side of the binder's tape; place the tape adhesive side down the corner of the book cover and on the spine of the book. Close the book.

Stocktaking

Stocktaking (an inventory of the collection) is carried out to ascertain that all items listed in the shelf list can be accounted for. This is a time-consuming process and, in all but the smallest libraries, it is best to carry out an inventory of only part of the collection each year. In one year the staff might check the fiction and some non-fiction groups and in the next year check the remaining non-fiction groups. The school library should not be closed for stocktaking. If it is impossible to stocktake while the library is open, stocktaking should be carried out during periods (vacations) when the school is closed.

Procedures for Stocktaking

1. The shelf list should be checked against the items on the shelf. Check the shelves in the same order as the shelf-list.

    (a) Shelf list cards for items not located should be clipped. If one copy of a title is missing, the accession number (or copy number) should be noted on the card and then clipped.

    (b) Items for which no shelf-list card exists should be removed from the shelves for checking.

2. Check missing items against the circulation records to determine if they are on loan. If they are on loan, place paperclip on circulation record.

3. Check the catalogue to determine whether only the shelf-list card is missing from items 1(b). If this is the case, a new shelf-list card should be made out. If not the item may need to be re-catalogued completely.

4. Compile and circulate a list of all missing items to students and staff.

5. Items still missing at the next stocktake (those still clipped) can be assumed lost. All cards for these items

must be removed from the catalogue. These cards can be filed at the back of the shelf-list under "lost items 19--".

6. Valuable items may need to be replaced.

This task is made much easier if a group of reliable helpers are used.

6.4 CIRCULATION OF INFORMATION RESOURCES

The impression that most users of libraries have about a particular library is formed at the circulation desk. For many library users the only contact they will have with school library staff will be when borrowing or returning information resources. The process of circulating information resources is a clerical task usually performed by school library assistants, and volunteers, usually students. The school librarian often works on the circulation desk, as they see this as an opportunity to make contact with the range of school library users.

All libraries need to identify and organise a circulation control system which will ensure that:

(a) information resources are available to the maximum number of users;
(b) a record of what has been loaned and to whom it is loaned is maintained.

Circulation policies and procedures vary widely from library to library, and this pattern is true of the school library environment. It is difficult to state that one circulation system is better than another. All school libraries need to have a written circulation policy, and school librarians need to consider a number of factors when develcping their written circulation policy. These include:

(a) type of circulation system to be used;
(b) categories and nature of borrowers;
(c) length of loan period for range of resources to be loaned;
(d) procedures for renewal of loans;
(e) types of resources which will be available for circulation;

(f) procedures for circulating resources;
(g) procedures for retrieving overdue resources;
(h) overdue fines;
(i) replacement obligations for lost resources;
(j) reserve system for high demand resources;
(k) bulk loans;
(l) interlibrary loans.

Once these decisions have been made, they must be formulated in a written policy and given formal approval by the school principal and the school board. The school library assistant needs to ensure that the policies and procedures developed by the school librarian are followed.

The school library assistant should, however, remember that the circulation system should allow for flexibility to satisfy the unique needs of individual borrowers. If at all possible, the system should be flexible about the number of items to be borrowed at a given time and also allow some flexibility in the length of time that items can be checked out or by allowing for renewals. In some school libraries, because they have a very small collection, limits of one or two items loaned to a user at one time are necessary, but, even in these instances, a library should allow individuals to borrow more items if they have a real need for them. Users should also be able to exchange items as often as necessary. Students who are finished with an item after one hour or one day should not be required to wait for a set period of time before they can exchange the item for a new one.

As many items as possible in the library should be made available for loan. Reference books and items in high demand can be loaned overnight when the library is closed. Audiovisual software and hardware should be available for loan. Most audiovisual resources are quite sturdy and will not be damaged by home use, and audiovisual software such as audio cassettes and slide sets are not more expensive than most books, and should not be more restricted for loan than other items. Students and teachers should be able to arrange for loans of a large number of items on a given topic to enrich units of study. These "bulk" loans to classrooms should be made as flexible as possible to meet the needs of the particular classroom teacher.

Overdue fines and replacement charges for lost or damaged materials are a source of problems for school librarians. Small fines are not usually a very successful method of getting resources returned on time, and the small amount of revenue generated by fines is not usually worth the trouble in collecting fines and maintaining the necessary records for auditors.

Most overdue items are returned within a week or two of the due date and an overdue reminder notice will get most late borrowers to return items that are a week or more overdue. It is not worthwhile chasing after borrowers who have resources that are only a few days overdue. For those few students who do not respond to overdue reminders a withdrawal of borrowing privileges until the item is returned is often necessary. Replacement costs can be charged for items that are lost or wilfully damaged. If replacement costs are to be charged, then they should apply equally to all users of the library staff, students and outside borrowers.

Circulation procedures should be written down in the school library policy manual and also should be displayed in the library on a large chart so that users will become familiar with them. The circulation system and circulation procedures adopted by a particular library should be easy for both the library staff and users to use and should be designed so as to encourage the use of library resources.

You should now consult:

Basic library operations: course book. Suva: University of the South Pacific, 1981.

and read Unit 14: The Circulation Desk.

As you are aware there are many different circulation systems in use throughout the world. This unit considers four of these systems. They are:

(a) Newark;
(b) Browne;
(c) Gaylord;
(d) IBM card system.

Examples of relevant software or stationery used are also shown.

When you have read and understood the content of Unit 14, you should undertake the Test Yourself questions as they appear in that text. You should also complete any relevant exercises. If you cannot answer any of the questions or find you have given wrong answers you should re-read the recommended course book in which you will find the answers.

You should now realise that the circulation of information resources is a complex operation, and needs to be carefully controlled and organised if it is to be effective in making the school library's resources available widely. You will also realise that the staff working at the circulation desk undertake a wide range of tasks to keep information resources circulating and available to users.

6.5 LIBRARY OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES

This section is concerned with the rules, regulations and keeping records in relation to the effective development and operation of school library and information service. The topics to be covered include:

(a) access to the school library;
(b) hours of opening and staff scheduling;
(c) conditions of borrowing;
(d) reporting of the use of the school library and information service.

These are rules and regulations which the school administration must make as part of the operation of the total school. Many of the rules and regulations will be applicable to the whole school, and the school library. You should be able to list a range of rules and regulations that apply to a school with which you are familiar and which are applicable to the operation of the school library. We shall now examine the range of rules and regulations which may need to be applied for the effective operation of library and information service in a school.

The first area to be considered is the philosophy adopted for staff, student and community access to the school library. This can be divided into:

(a) style of access to the school library;
(b) organisation and access to information resources within the school library.

Both areas need to be considered in their own right, as they are equally important.

The style of access to the school library by staff, student and community can be divided into two broad areas:

(a) open;
(b) closed.

The same terms can be applied to access to information resources within the school library. We shall examine the concept of open and closed access in relation to both approaches.

Access to the school library should be as open as possible to all potential users. This approach encourages staff, students and where applicable members of the community to use the school library in an unscheduled and unstructured manner. This is the approach which adult library users adopt. They use the library, when the need arises on an individual or group basis. The school library needs to permit students to visit the library as and when the need may arise on an individual basis. This need on an individual basis must be organised in conjunction with the classroom teacher. The school library should ensure that within its agreed terms of operation, individual or open access is not denied to any member of the school and its community.

You will realise that this concept of openness cannot always be met. Consider the situation in which you have two hundred students wishing to use the school library at one time, and where there are not enough seats in the school library, or enough information resources to be shared. This is a hypothetical situation but one which can occur. The situation is that too many teachers, students and members of the community wish to use the school library facilities at the same time.

One way of overcoming this situation in the school is to limit the number of teachers, students and members of the community who may use the school library at any one point of time. Should you find the demand for use of the school library cannot be met, this is an indication of the value of the school library.

This type of situation can give you the necessary evidence to expand and develop the school library and information service. The school librarian needs to keep an accurate record of use patterns; occasions when service cannot be met due to high demand, and work undertaken by the school library staff outside the school library in classrooms or other locations in the school.

The school librarian in arranging use of facilities may use a timetable or booking schedule. This approach is necessary when there is limited staff and space facilities in the school library. This approach permits careful planning by the school librarian in managing the staff, the space and the information resources. Such an approach helps alleviate overcrowding problems, and the development of negative attitudes towards the school library on the part of students and teaching staff.

The term closed access is used to describe the system where individuals come to the school library as part of an organised class group. These visits are scheduled on a regular basis usually once a week. The students must use the school library at that time, even if they do not have an information need at that time. Often these groups are given a formal lesson designed to develop information skills. You will remember from 5.6 Services to students that such lessons are most successful when they are related to activities which are being conducted in the classroom. A school library completely based on closed access is a sound education policy, as it forces the student to use the library even if they do not need to do so. The reverse argument relating to open access is that students may never go to the school library, and be exposed to its programmes and become aware of the information resources held in the school library.

Most school libraries adopt an access philosophy that is a combination of both open access and closed access. Students are scheduled to come to the school library at regular intervals, and work on assignment tasks in conjunction with classroom activities. Students and teachers are also permitted to visit the school library as the need arises. If the school library is too small to permit both scheduled classes and individual access, the school librarian will need to adopt a timetable approach.

If the school library is also available to members of the community, then the problem of access may be further emphasised. This is not based on attempting to deny access to any individual, but rather showing that there is a need for more staff, more space and more information resources in the school/ community library. Sometimes members of the community are restricted in times of access to the school library. These times are usually after school, in the evenings and on non-school days for students. However, use of the school library at these times requires more staff members for the school library.

The second area to be considered as part of Library Operational Activities is hours of opening. You must remember that there is high financial investment in the development and provision of a school library. It is therefore essential that users of the school library be given the maximum opportunity to access the facilities and resources. Think how often the school library may be closed - after school, evenings, public holidays, weekends and school holidays. There may be additional times in school libraries with which you are familiar, and other reasons as to why they are closed. One may be that the school library is part of a school which is a live-in or boarding school. Another reason may be the staffing arrangements, that is, there are insufficient personnel to keep the school library open during the times expected by the users. Sometimes the school library may be able to use volunteers to keep the library open. However, the duties which volunteers can undertake should be in the range as discussed in 3.8: School library staff. The volunteers, whether students or parents, should not undertake professional or para-professional tasks.

Each school will have to decide the hours of opening for its library. If the concept of access is open with a timetable, then consideration must be given to opening the school library for the whole school day. This should include before school, after school, recess time and lunch time, as well as the formal class periods. Remember that in these non-formal times, the school library may be the only location in the school where students can read, gather information or undertake a similar activity in relation to their studies. The school librarian in conjunction with the school principal and the school board will have to decide on a policy of opening. This policy should be in accordance with the school's aims and objectives, and the availability of staff to effectively work those hours of opening. It is not fair to expect the school librarian to have a heavier teaching/duty load than other teachers in the school, unless he/she receives additional financial remuneration. A similar situation exists in relation to the school library assistant.

Once the policy in relation to opening hours has been formulated, it should be made available to the users. This may take the form of a notice on the school library doors, a library information handout which is distributed to all school library users, and a statement made in the school's information booklet or prospectus. You may be able to think of other ways in which the school library can inform the users of opening hours. If these hours are to be changed for any reason, the school library staff must inform the users of the change whether the change is of a termporary or permanent nature.

The school librarian must be careful not to close the library unnecessarily. Sometimes it cannot be helped, and the users will be denied their access rights. Usually this is caused through sickness of the school library staff. However, the school library should not be closed in order that "housekeeping" duties such as the writing of overdue notices or stocktaking can take place. The school librarian has to use his/her managerial abilities to ensure that these "housekeeping" tasks are carried out with a minimum disruption to services to users.

The third area in which the school librarian must be concerned in Library Operational Procedures relates to the conditions of use of the library's resources whether they be software or hardware. This forms part of 6.4: Circulation of information resources. In this section, we are more concerned with the:

(a) code of behaviour expected of users;
(b) conditions of borrowing and returning resources to the school library.

The code of behaviour relates to the behaviour patterns required of the school library users by the school library staff. These usually take the form of a set of rules and regulations which must be observed by all who use the school library. They are often expressed in a negative form and begin with such words as Do not or No. Some of these phrases and rules often include:

(a) No talking;
(b) No chewing or eating in the school library;
(c) Do not write on the desks;
(d) Do not tear out cards from the catalogue.

Whilst these may be valid rules for a school library, the style in which they are written encourages the development of a negative attitude towards the school library.

The school library staff in conjunction with other teachers and the school principal should aim to develop a more positive approach to the use of the school library. This is easily achieved through the school's aims and objectives if they are concerned with developing such concepts as tolerance and working together as a team. Students can understand reasons why they must share the information resources and facilities of the school library in relation to these two concepts. The school librarian can therefore develop notices and signs using language which helps develop this more positive approach. You should be able to consider appropriate language which helps develop this positive approach.

One further area which needs to be developed in relation to the code of behaviour is the teaching of the necessary skills in the physical handling and care of school library resources, whether they be hardware and/or software. This has been discussed in 5.6: Services to students and in particular in the development of appropriate information skills in students. This area relates to an attitude of care for property which does not belong to an individual, but rather to a corporate body, such as the library of a school - attitude and specific skills development in relation to using and sharing a group of community owned resources.

Once the rationale behind caring for and using community owned resources has been clearly developed with students and teachers, then it is appropriate to introduce the concept of Conditions for Borrowing. There are many ways to introduce such a concept. These are based upon:

(a) clear understanding and previous demonstration of competencies needed to use the borrowed software and hardware items;
(b) others may wish to use the same software and hardware items.

Strategies include formal lessons in skills development, and a range of handouts to help gain an understanding of relevant skills, and to reinforce previously developed information skills.

There is a need to ensure that these skills and attitudes are clearly developed in students before any form of sanction is applied for poor or inadequate use, or misuse of the school library resources. Students must be reprimanded if they fail to meet these Conditions for Borrowing. These Conditions must state details including:

(a) loan period for the item;
(b) how to extend the loan period for an item;
(c) penalities involved in the non-compliance of loan requirements.

The penalities can be incurred for a number of reasons. The reasons include:

(a) failure to meet the required loan period deadline;
(b) failure to respond to correspondence from the school librarian;
(c) damage of information resources, whether they be hardware or software;
(d) loss of information resources, whether they be hardware or software.

You may be able to think of other reasons as to why penalities can be incurred for misuse of the school library and its resources.

There are many methods of imposing such penalities, and if your school decides to use such penalities, they may include:

(a) not being allowed to use the school library for a period of time;
(b) partial payment to help cover costs of repair and replacement;
(c) full payment to cover the full cost of repair and replacement.

You will realise that the Penalty (a) will help develop a negativo attitude by the student or teacher, and therefore is likely to harm the development of effective school library and information service. You will also realise that Penalty (b) and Penalty (c) involve payment of money. The fines may be beyond the financial capability of a student's family to pay. This may lead to the development of a negative attitude towards the school library, as financial deterents may not be valid. A more appropriate approach may be to help teach the student who has broken the Conditions of Borrowing, to explain the reasons why the rules have had to be imposed. One way to demonstrate this to students is to involve them as volunteers in the work of the school library. You will realise that there are many ways to approach this situation, and you will have to relate this to a school library environment with which you are familiar. Encouragement is a more valid educational strategy, than the negative approach of discouragement. Some of the ways in which this encouragement can be given include:

(a) having no monetary fines;
(b) not denying students access to the library;
(c) developing a spirit of co-operation and sharing when using the school library and other community resources.

You may be able to think of other ways of offering encouragement to students.

The fourth area with which we need to be concerned in Library Operational Procedures is in relation to reporting on the use of the school library and information service. To achieve this, the school library staff need to compile certain statistics and reports. Before compiling several lists of statistics, the school library staff must consider their value in library planning and publicity. The school library staff have more important work than to compile useless lists of statistics. In addition to other records already discussed, the following records and statistics might be kept in the library.

(a) size of the collection;
(b) number of library users;
(c) circulation details;
(d) record of library programme and activities;
(e) financial records.

We shall now examine each of the above type of record.

The size of the collection or number of items in the collection can be organised in a variety of ways. In the keeping of statistics, it is important that the record keeping be simple.

One way of keeping a simple record of additions and withdrawals is to use a daily record of the number of items added to or subtracted from the collection on a given day. These lists need to be organised for each type of information resource, e.g. books, gramophone records, sound cassettes etc. Some libraries will use the shelf list to estimate the number of items in each Dewey Decimal Class by using the rough formula of 100 cards to 2.5 cm. Another approach is to actually count the number of items on the shelves, plus what is on loan. However, this is very time consuming. Another record which helps in measuring the size of the collection is the accession book or accession register. This is a record of the details of each item added to the collection, whether they be purchased or donated. There is often a regulation from the school board or education authority to keep an accession record. Some school librarians no longer use a separate accession record, as they combine the information normally included in the accession record with the shelf list.

The number of library users is also a record required by the school board or education authority. The school library knows the exact number of potential users. These are based on the school student enrolment on any particular day, as well as the number of school staff. Remember these are only potential users, as not all will be actual users of the school library. It is not possible to estimate the number of additional potential users if the school library has become a community based library. If the library becomes community based, then it will be necessary to keep a record of registered community users in an alphabetical file by surname. Some libraries will keep a record of the number of users in the library at any point in time. However, it is not necessary to have this information for every day of the school year. The school librarian will have to design a strategy of statistical collection on a random basis. This may involve collecting statistics for a typical week, and then estimating the use for the term. In using any of these estimating techniques, the school librarian must ensure that a high degree of objectivity is present. If this is not present, the school administration may consider the value of the statistical information to be suspect and biased.

Details of circulation patterns of information resources can be a useful indicator of one type of library usage. Some libraries will keep these details on a daily basis, and this will give a base to justify the existence of the school library. They also help justify financial allocation of resources to the school library. Some school libraries may not collect circulation statistics on a daily basis, but rather will collect them on a random basis, and estimate total use patterns. If estimation is used, then the data must be collected at different times throughout the year. Any statistics relating to circulation patterns should include details of inter-library loan.

The school librarian needs to keep an accurate record of the school library's involvement in the school's educational and recreational programme. This type of record needs to be tabular and in a chronological order. Some comment should also be made on the effectiveness of the school library's involvement. Items which may be included in such a report are:

(i) support to the school's educational programme;
(ii) involvement in school based curriculum development;
(iii) involvement in team teaching by the school librarian in conjunction with classroom teachers;
(iv) involvement in community based activities, such as teaching adults to read;
(v) involvement in special activities such as Book Week, National Library Week or some other local activity.

You may be able to think of other areas of involvement which should be included in such a report. The areas listed above are all positive, however, it is also necessary to point out deficiencies or an inability to be involved. Areas which may be highlighted may include data on inability to answer questions or supply information resources when requested by users. The school library assistant can assist the school librarian to collect the data needed for the record of the school library programmes and activities.

Financial records must be maintained by the school library staff. Accurate records of school library income and expenditure must be maintained to ensure accountability by the school librarian and his/her staff. Each school will have its own system of financial accounting, and the school librarian must follow that system.

It is important that the school librarian can clearly explain how the allocation of funds to the school library have been spent.

School library records and statistics should only be collected if they will serve a useful purpose. They can be used by the school librarian to detect strengths and weaknesses in the information resources of the school library and the services offered to the library users. These records and statistics are useful in compilation of the necessary school library reports, and can also help to publicise and promote the school library.

The school library exists to meet the unique information needs of the school community, and sometimes the wider community of which the school is a part. All of the policies and procedures developed by the school library staff should be designed with the educational aims and objectives of the school in mind. Policies and procedures are not developed for the convenience of the school library. They are developed to ensure that the school library can provide an effective library and information service to students and staff. The policies and procedures adopted by the school library should be reviewed and evaluated by the school librarian at regular intervals. In any review and evaluation, it is paramount that the needs of school library users are kept in mind.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should now attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet, and attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION FIVE (6.5)

1. List four areas in which it is necessary to have rules and regulations, and keep records in relation to the operation of effective school library and information service.

2. Explain the difference between the terms open and closed access in relation to library operational procedures.

3. List and explain some of the criteria which need to be considered in determining the hours of opening for a school library.

4. What is meant by the term code of behaviour in relation to the use of the school library?

5. List, describe and explain five approaches which the school librarian can use in reporting on the use and effectiveness of the school library and information service for which he/she is responsible.

6.6 LIBRARY PROMOTIONAL ACTIVITIES

You will be aware by this stage of your course that it is necessary for school librarians to publicise and promote the use of the information resources and the services available to the teachers, students and school principal and the community. You will recall that many of these activities have been discussed in Unit Five in the Sections as follows:

5.4	Compiling information resource lists;
5.5	Services for teachers;
5.6	Services for students;
5.7	Extension services;
5.8	Special activities.

You should read these Sections again to revise the range of services available. All of these are relevant to the school library. These promotional and publicity activities are usually planned by the school librarian, and usually arranged by the school library assistant with supervision by the school librarian.

The best publicity which a school library can receive is the publicity spread by satisfied library users. The following factors contribute to successful promotion of the school library and its services.

(a) an effective school library programme;
(b) an attractive school library environment;
(c) enthusiastic service;
(d) friendly staff;
(e) a range of high quality and relevant information resources.

You may be able to think of other factors which contribute to successful school library promotion. In addition to providing a good service, there are many techniques which are used by school libraries to ensure that the school community is aware of the school library, its programme and services.

Some of these techniques include the following:

(a) a school library report;
(b) publicity through the local media;
(c) talking to school staff and parents;
(d) announcement of new information resources recently added to the school library collection;
(e) special activities;
(f) displays.

We shall now consider each of these techniques or approaches.

(a) School Library Reports

These should be brief with any detailed information including statistics attached as appendices. Busy administrators, including the school principal and library service advisors will read and react to a one page report, but may ignore a ten page report. The report should be in a narrative style highlighting the library programmes, and summarising the data collected by the school library. When at all possible, data on the school library and its programmes should be expressed in such manner or terms that relate to the aims and objectives of the school's educational programme. The report should highlight the contributions made by the library to the school, and should not be just an outpouring of grievances. However, it is legitimate to outline current problems and suggest strategies to solve these problems.

The report should be submitted to the school's chief administrator who is usually the school principal. The report can be submitted on a monthly, term or semester basis depending on the particular school and education system. There should also be an annual library report presented at the end of each school year. Copies of the reports, particularly the term/semester/annual report should be circulated to teachers, and interested organisations such as parent's clubs and community leaders. The school library report can be a useful means of reminding the school community of the ways that the school library has been utilised in the school's programme. It can also indicate that the library needs continued support to play an active role in the school.

The school library report is written by the school librarian. The other staff working in the school library collect information and statistics needed for the report. You should be able to think of the nature of the information to be included in the school library report.

(b) Publicity Through the Local Media

Local newspapers, radio stations, educational journals, magazines and newsletters are always looking for articles and information which they can use. They like to hear about particular programmes, particularly anything which is new and innovative. They also like to highlight special achievements of students and you may have competitions, achievement awards etc. in which the community would be interested.

The school librarian can send the relevant information to these organisations. Personnel from the relevant organisations can be invited to the school library to observe the school and its programmes in action. This will allow the taking of photographs, recording of sound interviews, recordings for showing on television, or on many occasions, just personal observation. All of these approaches can help extend and develop awareness of the school library and its programmes.

The students of the school are just as important as the school librarian and teachers in any contact with the local media. In many ways, the community is interested in the achievement of children. When the school library is being promoted through the local media, it is therefore a good idea to provide student involvement. Ways in which students can be involved include:

(i) reading stories and giving book talks over the radio;
(ii) talking about their experiences in using a school library, and how the school library has helped them in their learning;
(iii) reading or presenting their own work over the radio and the television.

You may be able to think of other ways in which students can be involved in library promotion using the local media.

The school librarian can also be involved in live presentations using the radio and television. Some of these have already been considered. However, the school librarian can have a regular time slot on the radio to talk about the school library and new information resources. This can be particularly helpful where regional difference in language is great, as this may be the only way in which local residents receive information about the library, its resources and services in their own language. As a school librarian, you may be able to think of other things you can do to involve the local media.

(c) Talking to School Staff and Parents

The school staff need to be made aware of the contribution which the school library can make to the school's educational programme. The reasons for talking with school staff are given in Unit Five: Section Five - Services for Teachers. You should now read that Section again.

You should also review the exercises for that Section. Remember that talking to teachers on a one-to-one basis can be a most effective way to advertise services.

Talking to parents is a highly effective method of publicising and promoting the school library. One method is to develop within the parents, an awareness of the role of the school library and how it can help their children. Remember that many parents may have never been to school, and if they did, there is a good chance that the school did not have a school library. It is important to communicate with the parents about the school library, as on some occasions, they may work on a voluntary basis in the school library. They may also be involved in fund raising activities to purchase new information resources for inclusion in the school library collection. Sometimes the school library in co-operation with the public library may offer a range of services suitable for parents. You should re-read Unit 5.7: Extension Services and Unit 5.8: Special Activities, as this will give you an indication of the services which may be available to parents. It is important that you as a school librarian develop a good relationship and communication with the parents of the school in which you work as a school librarian.

(d) Announcing New Library Purchases

This is discussed in Unit 5.5: Services for Teachers. You should re-read this Section to remind you of the rationale and methods used to inform teachers, students and parents. These may include:

(i) distribution of lists of newly arrived information resources;

(ii) informing teachers about individual new information resources in relation to their expressed interests;

(iii) displays of new information resources at a number of locations throughout the school.

(e) Special Activities

The school librarian can arrange a number of special activities which will help promote and publicise the work of the school library. These have also been discussed in Unit 5.7: Extension Services and Unit 5.8: Special Activities. You should re-read these Sections, and also review your answers to the exercises. Some of the special activities may include:

(i) puppet shows;
(ii) film screenings;
(iii) story hours;
(iv) creative activity sessions;
(v) play readings;
(vi) local newspaper production.

You may be able to think of other activities which you could use as a school librarian.

(f) Displays

Library displays are a good way to attract attention to the library. These can be displays directly related to the library and its resources or the library can be a display area for non-library displays. This term, non-library displays means displays which are created elsewhere in the school, or by external agencies such as a government department, an art gallery or a museum. Such displays are accommodated in the school library display space. The school library usually has no contribution to the design, production and mounting of the display. The school library will promote such a display and be responsible for the security of the display.

When you are arranging a display which has been designed and mounted by the school library, you will need to consider the following. Displays need to be attractive, not cluttered with a large number of objects, and changed regularly to be effective. A display should be centred around a theme or topic. Some of the steps to take to help ensure that a display will be effective are:

(i) Collect books and other information resources on the theme from the school library collection.

(ii) Collect real objects. Children, and your own home, will often supply a range of material (e.g. rolling pins, sieves, etc. for a cookery display). Museums and local clubs are another source of supply. Keep your eye on shop window displays, too. Often they will lend you items when their own display comes down (e.g. fishing nets). Travel agencies, embassies, publishers, etc. can often help with posters. Children in the school can usually produce material, too (e.g. masks, mobiles, illustrations for a particular story, etc.). Slides and sound cassettes can also be set up where they are appropriate.

(iii) A unifying poster is often necessary to announce the theme. Sometimes you can obtain a poster that will do the job; if you need to produce the poster, clear lettering can be done using letraset (although this is expensive), stencils or with cork letters. Sheets of bright coloured flint paper or cardboard are also an asset for display work. The overhead projector can be used to produce copies of line drawings to complete an attractive poster. Many of the techniques (cardboard printing, collage, etc.) outlined in primary school art textbooks are very easily applied and help to make the display effective. Use talented staff or students to help make posters.

(iv) Arranging the display. Display boards, tables, windows, fishing line from the ceiling,

> hessian or other material hung from a wall, material draped over cardboard boxes and curtains are all good display surfaces. Displays should not be too formally arranged or too cluttered. Children's work often looks best mounted on a plain cardboard backing of an appropriate colour.

Finally it is a good idea to keep a record of the displays which have been mounted by the school library. This record can be in the form of several photographs of the display. They should be in colour, and either in print or slide format. The record of the display should include all items included in the display and from where they were obtained. Also any special techniques used should be described, and copies of any handouts used should also be included. This allows you to use or modify the same display again; to share your ideas with other school librarians, or even lend the display to another school librarian.

School library staff need to make sure that other members of the school community are aware of the school library and its importance to the total educational programme of the school. They must promote and publicise the school library programme, but these promotional activities should not become an end in themselves. A well run effective school library and information service is the best promotion and publicity mechanism for the school library.

TEST YOURSELF

EXERCISES

You should attempt to complete the following exercises without referring to the course booklet. If you cannot answer the questions, you will then need to re-read the course booklet and then attempt to answer the questions. You will find the answers in the course booklet.

SECTION SIX (6.6)

1. List at least five factors which contribute to the successful promotion of the school library and its services.

2. Describe and explain at least six techniques or approaches which the school library can use as part of its promotional and publicity activities.

UNIT VI

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